nation to the north of Canada, who have but one leg, and p— from behind the ear; but I own I had rather converſe for any time with people who ſpeak like Mr Pitt, than with a nation of jugglers, who are only fit to go about the country, under the direction of T— and M— (two Engliſh gentlemen who were ſhut up in Fort L'Eveque for cheating a Jew.) Their exiſtence I do not doubt; they are recorded by Pere Charlevoix, in his much admired hiſtory of New France, in which there are ſuch outrageous legends of miracles for the propagation of the goſpel, that his fables in natural hiſtory ſeem ſtrict veracity.

Gunpowder Plot.

December 24, 1754.

For news, I think I have none to tell you. Mr Pitt is gone to the Bath, and Mr Fox to Newcaſtle-houſe; and every body elſe into the country for the holidays. When Lord Bath was told of the firſt determination of turning out Pitt, and letting Fox remain, he ſaid, it put him in mind of a ſtory of the gunpowder-plot. The Lord Chamberlain was ſent to examine the vaults under the parliament-houſe, and, returning with his report, ſaid, he had found five-and-twenty barrels of gunpowder; that he had removed ten of them, and hoped the other fifteen would do no harm!

Flattery and Garrick.

Auguſt 15, 1755.

I dined to-day at Garrick's: there were the Duke of Grafton, Lord and Lady Rochford, Lady Holderneſs, the crooked Mollyn, and Dabren the Spaniſh miniſter; two regents, of which one is lord chamberlain, the other groom of the ſtole; and the wife of a ſecretary of ſtate. This is being *fort un aſſez bon ton* for a player! Don't you want to aſk me how I like him? Do want, and I will tell you—I like *her* exceedingly; her behaviour is all ſenſe, and all ſweetneſs too. I don't know how, *he* does not improve ſo faſt upon me: there is a great deal of parts, and vivacity and variety; but there is a great deal too of mimicry and burleſque. I am very ungrateful, for he flatters me abundantly: but unluckily I know it. I was accuſtomed to it enough when my father was firſt miniſter; on his fall I loſt it all at once: and ſince that, I have lived with Mr Chute, who is all vehemence; with Mr Fox, who is all diſputation; with Sir Charles Williams, who has no time from flattering himſelf; with Gray, who does not hate to find fault with me; with Mr Conway, who is all ſincerity; and with you and Mr Rigby, who have always laughed at me in a good-natured way. I don't know how, but I like all this as well—I beg his pardon, Mr Rafter does flatter me; but I ſhould be a cormorant for praiſe, if I could ſwallow it whole as he gives it me.

The Opera.

October 19, 1755.

I believe I ſcarce ever mentioned to you laſt winter the follies of the opera: the impertinences of a great ſinger were too old and too common a topic. I muſt mention them now, when they riſe to any improvement in the character of national folly. The *Mingotti*, a noble figure, a great miſtreſs of muſic, and a moſt incomparable actreſs, ſurpaſſed any thing I ever ſaw for the extravagance of her humours. She never ſung above one night in three, from a fever upon her temper; and never would act at all when Ricciarelli, the firſt man, was to be in dialogue with her. Her fevers grew ſo high, that the audience caught them, and hiſſed her more than once: ſhe herſelf once *turned and hiſſed again!*—Well, among the treaties which a ſecretary of ſtate has negociated this ſummer, he has contracted for a *ſuccedaneum* to the Mingotti. In ſhort, there is a woman hired to ſing when the other ſhall be out of humour.

The Gout Quackery.

This and the following Articles are from Letters to Mr Gray, the celebrated Poet.

Paris, November 19, 1765.

You are very kind to enquire ſo particularly after my gout. I wiſh I may not be too circumſtantial in my anſwer: but you have tapped a dangerous topic: I can talk gout by the hour. It is my great mortification, and has diſappointed all the hopes I had built on temperance and hardineſs. I have reſiſted like a hermit, and expoſed myſelf to all weathers and ſeaſons like a ſmuggler; and in vain. I have however ſtill ſo much of the obſtinacy of both profeſſions left, that I ſhall continue, and cannot obey you in keeping myſelf warm. I have gone through my ſecond fit under one blanket, and already go about in a ſilk waiſtcoat with my boſom unbuttoned. In ſhort, I am as prejudiced to my regimen, though ſo ineffectual, as I could have been to all I expected from it. The truth is I am almoſt as willing to have the gout as to be liable to catch cold; and muſt run up ſtairs and down, in and out of doors, when I will, or I cannot have the leaſt ſatisfaction. This will convince you how readily I comply with another of your precepts, walking as ſoon as I am able. For receipts, you may truſt me for making uſe of none: I would not ſee a phyſician at the worſt, but have quacked myſelf as boldly as quacks treat others. I laughed at your idea of quality-receipts, it came ſo apropos. There is not a man or woman here that is not a perfect good nurſe, and who does not talk gruel and anatomy, with equal fluency and ignorance. One inſtance ſhall ſerve: Madame de Bouzols, Marſhal Berwick's daughter, aſſured me there was nothing ſo good for the gout, as to preſerve the parings of my nails in a bottle cloſely ſtopped. When I try any illuſtrious noſtrum, I ſhall give the preference to this.

Himſelf.

Paris, Auguſt 9, 1771.

I HAVE, I own, been much ſhocked at reading Gray's death in the papers. 'Tis an hour that makes one forget any ſubjects of complaint, eſpecially toward one with whom I lived in friendſhip from thirteen years old. As ſelf lies ſo rooted in ſelf, no doubt the nearneſs of our ages made the ſtroke recoil to my own breaſt; and having ſo little expected his death, it is plain how little I expected my own. Yet to you, who of all men living are the moſt forgiving, I need not excuſe the concern I feel. I fear, moſt men ought to apologize for their want of feeling, inſtead of palliating that ſenſation when they have it. I thought that what I had ſeen of the world had hardened my heart; but I find it had formed my language, not extinguiſhed my tenderneſs. In ſhort, I am really ſhocked—nay, I am hurt at my own weakneſs, as I perceive that when I love any body, it is for my life; and I have had too much reaſon not to wiſh that ſuch a diſpoſition may very ſeldom be put to the trial. You at leaſt are the only perſon to whom I would venture to make ſuch a confeſſion *.

* See other reflections on Mr Gray's death in our laſt Magazine, page 861.

A GOOD woman had been won over from popery to proteſtantiſm, not by any rational argument, but by an artful ſcruple thrown in her way by her zealous huſband.

'Ye call the pope *his holineſs* (ſaid he),—What impiety! for is it not ſaid in the holy ſcripture, HOLINESS TO THE LORD?'

The woman was ſtruck with this quotation; and as ſhe had no conception of the relative ſignification of words, ſhe readily fell into the ſnare, and became a violent preſbyterian. Her parents and friends bewailed her apoſtaſy; and, with tears, requeſted me try to reclaim her.

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'I ſhall certainly ſpeak to her (ſaid I): but, if ſhe have conſcientiouſly changed her religion, neither you nor I have any right to condemn her.'

I accordingly took the firſt opportunity to accoſt her; and ſimply aſked, why ſhe had left the Catholic communion?—She anſwered, without heſitation, it was becauſe we called the pope *his holineſs!*

'Is that all? (ſaid I, ſmiling)—Your motive is none of the ſtrongeſt:—the title you have boggled at, is a mere title of diſtinction; not annexed to the perſon of the pope, but to his high function. Thus we call the king *his ſacred majeſty*: a title far more auguſt than that of *his holineſs*. Beſides, are not we all called to holineſs by the word of God? *Be ye holy, becauſe I am holy.*'

She inſtantly felt the force of this reaſoning, and returned to the boſom of old mother church. How many converſions and re-converſions may been made, on motives as ſlight and inſignificant.

Dr Geddes' Preface to a new Tranſlation of the Bible.

ON THE GENERAL CONTENTMENT OF MANKIND.

SPECULATIVE MEN, who take their opinions of men and things rather from what they have read, than what they have ſeen, and who, in following their predeceſſors, adopt a ſet of opinions, that are not always founded on experience, have, among other aſſertions, maintained that mankind are in general diſcontented with their lot, and that the whole buſineſs of human life is a ſtruggle to mend it, to attain ſomething greater, higher, or more happy

Horace, you may remember, begins his firſt ſatire with aſking his patron, Mecenas, how it comes about that no man is ſatisfied with his lot; and then he endeavours, by a train of whimſical reaſoning, to account for this univerſal diſcontent. Horace was an excellent *poet*, but he was no philoſopher; he was not one of thoſe whom Bacon has taught to reaſon: he ought firſt to have aſcertained the fact, as a philoſopher of the laſt century, who when aſked the reaſon why lead ſwam in water, anſwered, 'I muſt firſt be ſatisfied that lead can ſwim.'

Before therefore we conclude that mankind are in general deficient in the article of contentment, let us enquire whether the caſe really be ſo? Now, I apprehend that if in conſidering this queſtion, we keep our eye fixed only upon the ſmall circle of our acquaintance, we may heſitate, but if we take a more enlarged view of mankind, we ſhall be at no loſs to pronounce that the great majority or maſs of mankind are content with their lot, and that that part of them who are not ſo, ought to be conſidered only as the exception to a general rule, and which exception, by all the laws of reaſoning, does not deſtroy, but rather confirm that rule.

Let us, in the firſt place, conſult the page of hiſtory. Hiſtory, if properly analyzed, will, I am afraid, be found to contain only a detail of the effects ariſing from the ambition of a *few*, operating upon the ſimple paſſions and contented diſpoſitions of the reſt of mankind. When we have got a liſt of all the princes and heroes that have either diſturbed or promoted the happineſs of mankind, how ſcanty does ſuch a liſt appear when compared to the vaſt catalogue of human beings, who, during the brilliant reigns and magnificent exploits of the former, were content to paſs through the world without notice and without ambition? If, ſecondly, we paſs to another branch of hiſtory, biography, we there find a great number of men who were not content with their lot, and who roſe to diſtinction and rank either by honeſt emulation, or by diſhonourable methods, ſome who are held up as examples for our imitation, and ſome who are no leſs uſefully pre-

ſented

ſented as beacons to warn us of our danger. But when we have collected all the inſtances of both, which the labours of induſtrious compilers have handed down to us, what proportion do they bear to the maſs of mankind? Not ſo much, I think it may fairly be preſumed, as the proportion of one to a million. Why, then, ſhould we argue from the conduct of the few, when our buſineſs is to decide on the character of the many?

Hiſtory contains little elſe beſide the fate of battles and the revolutions of empires, and why? Why is it inattentive to what mankind at large have been doing? Plainly, becauſe mankind at large have gone on through life without any of thoſe deſires to better their condition, which lead to events worthy of a place in hiſtory. Even when there have been commotions in nations, ſome of which we have unhappily lived to read of at no great diſtance, is it not evident that theſe are the operations of a few bold and daring ſpirits upon the paſſions, both good and evil, of the many, who without ſuch incitements are diſpoſed to be content? It has been found likewiſe that extreme oppreſſion will produce reſiſtance from the moſt quiet of mankind, but this is no argument againſt their general diſpoſition toward contentment. The moſt harmleſs animal will turn upon its tormentor, and I ſuppoſe it poſſible for a tyrannical maſter to convert his dog into a ſavage, however tame and faithful the animal may have been before. Contentment does not deſtroy ſelf-preſervation, nor change any one law of nature. Extreme oppreſſion therefore, is not a fair caſe to alledge, and yet if any one will inſiſt upon it, I will oppoſe to him the caſe of any nation labouring under a ſavage tyranny. Look at the king of Dahomey, demanding the heads of ſo many ſcore of his ſubjects, merely that their ſculls may ornament the walls of his palace, and behold the quietneſs with which the executioners perform upon their fellow-ſubjects, and the patience with which the reſt of the people witneſs a ſcene of this kind. Is this a proof that mankiud are generally diſcontented?—Farther, when we have peruſed the hiſtories of the moſt celebrated tyrannical governments that ever diſgraced the annals of the world, ſhall we not decide in favour of the *contentment* of nations, who ſubmitted to oppreſſions that we have ſcarcely faith to believe, or nerves to read of? And that for ſuch a length of time, that the brief recital of what they ſuffered occupies volumes?

But it is not neceſſary to appeal to paſt ages. Our own obſervation, if enlarged, will afford a multitude of proofs of the general contentment of mankind with their lot, however humble, or however mean it may appear to us. The various gradations of ſociety will often aſtoniſh a thinking man, when he ſees how little gives ſatisfaction to thouſands, and how much will not ſatisfy an ambitious or avaricious individual. We have one remarkable inſtance in the caſe of the army and navy, not of our nation only, but of all nations. By whatever means men have been collected for theſe purpoſes, how ſoon are they reconciled to it; how quiet, orderly, and diſciplined; how little ambitious of any diſtinctions but that of fidelity and bravery! Yet men in the civil walks of life cannot conceive how it is poſſible to be happy in thoſe profeſſions, while the ſoldiers and the ſailors wonder that idle fellows will remain at home, when the career of glory is opened before them by a declaration of war. It is impoſſible to lay down a ſcale of happineſs; nor can we meaſure any man's ideas upon that ſubject ſo well as our own. But the fact is, that look among what claſs of men we pleaſe, the inſtances we find of diſcontent bear no kind of proportion to the number of thoſe, who never ſeem to entertain a

thought

thought of change. How many very mean employments are there in which men consume their whole lives without dreaming of a change, without, as far as the most scrutinizing eye can observe, envying or repining at the lot of others. They are contented with the accustomed profits of their business, and never are found to complain, unless, among individuals, vice has destroyed industry, or the circumstances of the times be such as to require some addition to their wages. Yet even in these cases, they do not think of changing their trades. The scavenger does not dream of being a linen draper, nor the chimney-sweeper offer to keep a merchant's account.

The contentment we observe in the generality of mankind, with their situations, may be perhaps attributed to a kind of pride or fondness for it, when compared with other situations.

It is not very material what the cause may be—My business was to state the effect, and it is surely a circumstance that ought to promote universal benevolence among mankind, when we perceive all ranks contentedly, in their various callings, preserving the order of society, and contributing to the general convenience of the whole. I humbly conceive, that if the subject is viewed in the lights which I have but slightly sketched, we shall find sufficient reason to differ from those who think that mankind are in general discontented. Indeed, if they were, no form of society or government could go on long, and from whatever cause the general contentment of man proceeds, we may be satisfied that where the effect is so favourable to the welfare of the public, the cause cannot be a bad one.

ON THE PHRASE *The Enlightened Public.*

HE who thinks, will perceive in every enlightened nation, three kinds of people; an inconsiderable number instructed by reason, and glowing with humanity; a countless multitude, barbarous and ignorant, intolerant and inhospitable: and a vacillating people with some reason and humanity, but with great prejudices, at once the half-echoes of philosophy, and the adherents of popular opinion. Can the *public* be denominated *enlightened?* Take an extensive view among the various orders of society, and observe how folly still wantons in the vigour of youth, and prejudice still stalks in the stubbornness of age.

To trace the human mind as it exists in people, would be the only method to detect this fallacious expression. The unenlightened numbers, who are totally uninfluenced by the few, live in a soul world of their own creation. The moral arithmetician, as he looks for the sum total of the unenlightened public, must resemble the algebraist, who riots in incalculable quantities, and who smiles at the simple savage, whose arithmetic extends not further than the number of three.

In a metropolis, we contemplate the human mind in all its inflections. If we were to judge of men by the condition of their *minds*, (which perhaps is the most impartial manner of judging) we should not consult the year of their birth, to date their ages: and an intellectual register might be drawn up, on a total different plan from our parochial ones. A person may, according to the vulgar era, be in the maturity of life, when by our philosophical epocha he is born in the tenth century. That degree of mind which regulated the bigotry of a monk in the middle ages, may be discovered in a modern rector. An adventurous spirit in a red coat, who is almost as desirous (to use the wit of South) to receive a kiss from the mouth of a cannon, as from that of his mistress, belongs to the age of chivalry, and if he should compose verses, and be magnificently prodigal, he is a gay and noble troubadour. A sarcastic philo-

sopher,

ſopher, who inſtructs his fellow citizens, and retires from their ſociety, is a contemporary with Diogenes; and he who, reforming the world, graces inſtruction with amenity, may be placed in the days of Plato. Our vulgar politicians muſt be arranged among the Roundheads and Olivers, and Tom Paine himſelf is ſo very ancient as to be a contemporary of Shimei. The reſult of our calculations would be, that the enlightened public form an inconſiderable number.

It muſt however be confeſſed, that what knowledge has been accumulated by modern philoſophy, cannot eaſily periſh; the art of printing has imparted ſtability to our intellectual ſtructures, in what depends on the mechanical preſervation. Human ſcience can no more be annihilated by an Omar. A ſingular ſpectacle has, therefore been exhibited; and it is ſometimes urged by thoſe who contemplate, with pleaſing aſtoniſhment, the actual progreſs of the human mind, as a proof of the immutability of truth, that at the preſent day, every enlightened individual, whether he reſides at Paris, at Madrid, or at London, now thinks alike; no variation of climate, no remoteneſs of place, not even national prejudices, more variable and more remote than either, deſtroy that unanimity of opinion, which they feel on certain topics eſſential to human welfare.

This appears to be a ſpecious argument in favour of the enlightened public. But we ſhould recollect, that this unanimity of opinion, which ſo frequently excites ſurpriſe, is owing to their deriving their ideas from the ſame ſources; at Paris, at Madrid, and at London, the ſame authors are read, and, therefore, the ſame opinions, are formed.

'Thus we account for this unanimity of opinion; and we may now reaſonably enquire if (whether) *unanimity of opinion* always indicates *permanent truth?* It is certain that very extravagant opinions were once univerſally received; it becomes not an individual to affirm that ſome of our modern opinions are marveloutly extravagant; we muſt leave them for the deciſion of poſterity. We may, however, ſay to the greateſt genius, look at what your equals have done, and obſerve how frequently they have erred. Reflect, that whenever an Ariſtotle, a Deſcartes, and a Newton appeared, they formed a new epocha in the annals of human knowledge; it is not unreaſonable to add one, among your thouſand conjectures, and ſay, that their future rivals may trace new connections, and collect new facts, which may tend to annihilate the ſyſtems of their predeceſſors. Is not opinion often local, and ever diſguiſed by cuſtom? is not what we call truth often error? and are not the paſſions and ideas of men of ſo very temporary a nature, that they ſcarce endure with the century? This enlightened public may diſcover that their notions become obſolete, and that with new ſyſtems of knowledge, and new modes of exiſtence, their books may be cloſed for their ſucceſſors, and only conſulted by the curious of a future generation, as we now examine Ariſtotle and Deſcartes, Ariſtophanes and Chaucer. Our learning may no more be their learning, than our faſhions will be their faſhions. Every thing in this world is faſhion.

It may alſo be conjectured, that amidſt the multitude of future diſcoveries, the original authors of our own age, the Newtons and the Lockes, may have their conceptions become ſo long familiariſed, as to be incorporated with the novel diſcoveries, as truths ſo inconteſtible, that very few ſhall even be acquainted with their firſt diſcoverers. It would therefore appear, that the juſtneſs, as well as the extravagance of our authors, are alike inimical to their future celebrity.'

From D'Iſraeli's Miſcellanies.

DESCRIPTION OF CASHMERE.

THIS happy valley, this Paradiſe of Hindooſtan, of the Indian poets, is of an oval form, about eighty miles long and forty broad, and was once ſuppoſed to have been entirely filled with water; which having burſt its mound, left this vale enriched to the moſt diſtant ages by the fertilizing mud of the rivers which fed its expanſe. This delicious ſpot is ſurrounded by mountains of vaſt height and rude aſpect, covered with ſnow, or enchaſed in glaciers in which this enchanting jewel is firmly ſet. At the foot of the exterior chain is an interior circle of hills, fertile in graſs, abundant in trees and various ſorts of vegetation, and full of all kinds of cattle, as cows, ſheep, goats, gazelles, and muſks. The approach to Caſhmere, is alſo very rugged and difficult. We have mentioned the mountains of Bember; beſide thoſe is one on which the pioneers of Aurenge-zebe were obliged to cut through a *glaciere*, or a great maſs, as Bernier calls it, of icy ſnow.

The capital of this happy ſpot is ſometimes called Caſhmere, ſometimes Sirinagur, and ſometimes Nagaz, is ſeated in lat. 34° 12′ north, on the banks of the river, which runs with a current moſt remarkably ſmooth. At a little diſtance from it is a ſmall but beautiful lake, with a communication with the river by a navigable canal. The town was, in Bernier's time, three quarters of a French league long, built on both ſides, and ſome part extended to the lake. Villas, moſques, and pagodas, decorate ſeveral of the little hills that border the water. The houſes are built of wood, four ſtories high, ſome higher; the lower is for the cattle, the next for the family, the third and fourth ſerve as warehouſes. The roofs are planted with tulips, which in the ſpring produce a wonderful effect. Roſes and numberleſs other flowers, ornament this happy clime. The inhabitants often viſit the lake in their boats for the pleaſure of hawking, the country abounding with cranes, and variety of game.

The river, which riſes at Wair Naig, near the ſouthern part of the ſurrounding mountains, flows with a north-weſtern courſe by the capital, and falls into the lake Ouller, which is fifty-three miles in length, and lies in the ſouthern part of the valley, not remote from the kingdom of great Thibet, then paſſes through the outlet at Barehmooleh, between two ſteep mountains, and from thence, after a long courſe, to its junction with the Chunaub. This river is large and navigable, even within the limits of Caſhmere. Bernier ſays, it carries boats as large as thoſe on the Seine at Paris. Many ſmall lakes are ſpread over the ſurface, and ſome of them contain floating iſlands. Among others, Bernier viſited one, which he calls, "a great lake amid the mountains, which had ice in ſummer, and looked like a little icy ſea, having heaps of ice made and unmade by the winds." This reminds me of the coalition and ſeparation of the ice in the Spitzbergen ſeas. This in queſtion may be like the Ouller, for I ſee none of any ſize in the maps, excepting that expanſe of water.

The author of the Ayeen Akberry dwells with rapture on the beauties of Caſhmere; whence we may conclude, that it was a favourite ſubject with his maſter Acbar, who had viſited it three times before Abolfazul wrote. Other Emperors of Hindooſtan viſited it alſo, and ſeemed to forget the cares of government during their reſidence in the happy valley. By the ſalubrity of the air, and the cheering beauties of of the place, they collected new vigour to reſume the cares of government. The remains of the palaces, pavilions, and gardens, exhibit proofs of their elegance and ſplendour. It appears, that the periodical rains which almoſt de-

deluge the reſt of India, are ſhut out of Caſhmere by the height of mountains, ſo that only ſlight ſhowers fall there; theſe, however, are in abundance, ſufficient to feed the thouſands of caſcades, which are precipitated into the valley from every part of the ſtupendous and romantic bulwark that encircles it. Amid the various felicities of the Caſhmerians, one dreadful evil they are conſtantly ſubject to, namely, earthquakes: but to guard againſt their terrible effects, all their houſes are built of wood, of which there is no want.

The Caſhmerians are eſteemed a moſt witty race, and much more intelligent and ingenious than the Hindoos, and as much addicted to the ſciences and to poetry as the very Perſians. They have a language of their own: but their books are written in the Shanſcrit tongue, although the character be ſometimes Caſhmerian. They are alſo very induſtrious, and excellent mechanics. The various articles of their workmanſhip are ſent into all parts of India. This race is famous for the fineneſs of their features, and their admirable complexions. They look like Europeans, and have nothing of the Tartarian flat-noſed face, and ſmall eyes, like thoſe of Caſchguer and their neighbours of Thibet. It is certainly quite right, that this paradiſe, the region of eternal ſpring, ſhould be peopled with females angelic: they are uncommonly beautiful. The courtiers of the time of Bernier, were moſt ſolicitous to obtain for their Zenanes the Caſhmerian fair, in order that they might have children whiter than the natives of Hindooſtan, that they might paſs for the true Mogul breed, congenerous with their monarch.

The religion of the Caſhmerians is the ſame as that of the Hindoos poſſibly the pardonable ſuperſtition the inhabitants, warmed by their romantic ſituation, may have multiplied the places of worſhip of Mahadeo, of Beſchan, and of Brama. Here is a ſect of religioniſts, free from idolatry, which worſhip the Diety alone. They are remarkably benevolent, and abſtain from the other ſex. They muſt therefore be continued by diſciples. As to the Mahometans, they are not numerous, and thoſe ſplit into ſects.

The Caſhmerians ſeem to have had an idea of the deluge, for they ſay, that in the early ages of the world, all Caſhmere, except the mountains, was covered with water. One Kuſhup brought the Brahmins to inhabit the country as ſoon as the waters had ſubſided. Neither were they ignorant of the hiſtory of Noah, for the Indians ſpeak of him under the name of Sattiaviraden, who, with his wife, was by the god Vichenou, who ſent to them an ark, preſerved from deſtruction in a general deluge. The firſt monarch of the country was Owgrund, who was elected, ſays Abulfazul, 4444 years before his time.

Here are a number of hermits in places nearly inacceſſible. They are highly venerated, ſome being ſuppoſed to have power to excite the fury of the elements. Bernier found an ancient anchorite, who had inhabited the ſummit of the lofty mountain Pirepenjale ever ſince the time of Jehangire, who was here in 1681. His religion was unknown. To him was attributed the power of working miracles. He cauſed at his pleaſure great thunders, and raiſed ſtorms of hail, rain, ſnow, and wind. He looked ſavage, having a large white beard uncombed, which, like that of our Druids, "ſtreamed like a meteor to the troubled air." The ſage forbid the making the leaſt noiſe, on pain of raiſing furious ſtorms and tempeſts.

From Pennant's View of Hindooſtan.

OVER-

OVERLAND ROUTE TO INDIA.

AT a time when the general ſuppoſition is, that our enemy meditates an overland expedition againſt our Eaſt India ſettlements, and the public opinion is divided as to the practicability of it, the following information may not be unacceptable to our readers. It was drawn up a few years ago for the uſe of our countrymen, who, from motives of curioſity or buſineſs, wiſhed to go in this manner to the Eaſt Indies, and you have it in the words of the perſon who drew it up. It will ſtill remain doubtful whether an army can be conveyed with the ſame facility as an individual, and theſe directions were chiefly intended for an individual.

A ſingle gentleman intending to go to the Eaſt Indies, by the way of Buſſora, with diſpatches, is to obſerve two periods for his proceeding from England: firſt, if he ſets off from the beginning of Auguſt to February, he ought to proceed by the way of Vienna, Conſtantinople, and Aleppo, by land; to Vienna the poſts are tolerably agreeable, and he can get reſt in his chaiſe; but from thence to Aleppo, will be very fatiguing to a perſon not accuſtomed to riding, as he muſt travel the whole way on horſeback; ſo let him conſider this before he ſets off, and provide himſelf with a comfortable ſaddle. If he leaves England from the beginning of March to the laſt of July, he will find at Trieſte, Venice, or Leghorn, a conveyance by ſhipping to Cyprus; but I muſt adviſe, that a month, or at leaſt a fortnight before he ſet off, he write to Trieſte, Venice and Leghorn, to a good houſe, deſiring they will make enquiries at what time the firſt veſſel is likely to ſail for Cyprus, Alexandria, Alexandretta, or Lathecia, and if no veſſel is yet determined in going there, then deſire they will enquire if a ſnug veſſel can be procured on freight, directly to Lathecia, or Cyprus, and the terms, and that they will be as expeditious as poſſible, to forward this anſwer to your friend at Vienna, to remain until your arrival; you will act according to your intelligence; and ſhould it ſo happen that you are early in April, and there is no appearance of a veſſel going, or procuring one on freight, at either of the above-mentioned ports, then you muſt not heſitate, but puſh on by land. Your baggage muſt conſiſt of only two middling portmantuas and a portfolio letter caſe for your papers; two good Engliſh muſquets, and two pair of piſtols for yourſelf, and ſervant from Aleppo; if you have more baggage, you will find it very inconvenient; having the Eaſt-India Company's protection, you will be aſſiſted by the conſul, and gentlemen, and they will uſe their beſt endeavours to procure you every neceſſary. On your arrival at Aleppo, requeſt the conſul will order ſix light camels or dromedaries, four Arabs to accompany them, and two of his beſt meſſengers, with horſes; and if it is the cold ſeaſon, hire a horſe for yourſelf, otherwiſe ride a camel, and get a proper ſaddle, and remember to take ſtore of water from the town. Your principal want is a good linguiſt; he may act alſo as a cook for ſuch things as you want, the principal part of your diet being tea and biſcuit, cold tongue, beef, or heating your fried mutton. If your meſſengers are good, they may prevent your falling into any conſiderable tribe of Arabs, who keep a very indifferent look out: and as you muſt conſtantly in the day time keep one of them a mile or two a-head, looking out, and mounting every ſwell that is in your route, where they can have a clear look around them; of courſe, if any Arab encampments are diſcovered, it is only altering your route in time, and making a circuit round them. Give ſignals to your advanced meſſenger; if he wants you to ſtop, let him put his handkerchief

on his ſpear, and wave it, until he ſees you ſtop, then let him advance to reconnoitre, but be careful not to go too near to be perceived; and ſhould his fears turn to buſhes, or ſhadows, he may again hoiſt his handkerchief on his ſpear, and keep it flying as a flag, until he perceives you begin to advance again. This is to prevent your loſing more time than is neceſſary, by waiting for the Arab going backward and forward. Should you diſcover a large encampment of Arabs a-head, and the deſert on each ſide quite level, ſo that it would be difficult to take a circuit without a probability of their ſeeing you, you had better ſtop in time, and remain till dark, and then you will ſee their fires, and paſs them accordingly; you and your ſervant, or linguiſt, ſhould be well armed, your Arab meſſengers having lances and match lock, as alſo your cameliers, making together eight.

Two hours before you expect arriving at the principal watering places, diſpatch one of your meſſengers forward to reconnoitre, giving him particular orders to be very circumſpect, and not to advance too far, until he ſees the coaſt clear, and let him repeat the ſignals as before-mentioned, or any other you may think better; remember always to have one meſſenger near you, for any ſervice you may have for the horſes; and when you have nearly advanced to the watering-place, ſtop your camels until your diſpatched meſſenger makes you the advancing ſignal, or returns to you with an account of what he has ſeen; and if he has diſcovered a conſiderable tribe of Arabs encamped, you muſt then conſider if you can hold out for water, until you reach the next place; if you cannot, then advance with a proper ſpirit, keeping cloſe together, and prepared for the worſt; always on your guard; but let prudence direct your actions, both with the Arabs under your command, and alſo to ſtrangers. Theſe latter muſt never be allowed to come nearer than thirty yards, and be always careful of permitting them, from falſe pretences, to get within the length of their ſpear, and if they advance tell them to keep their diſtance, and by your linguiſt, whom you muſt let mount the meſſenger's horſe, let him advance and ſpeak to the Arabs friendly; firſt to enquire where the ſhiek is: when he comes, tell him you are a ſoldier going to Buſſora; that you have no merchandiſe, or any thing but letters to your friends and ſome proviſions; that you look upon all the Arabs of the deſert as your friends, and that if you find him ſo, you will tender him a preſent; that you deſire he will not moleſt you in the watering, and will give orders to his people not to approach too near to your baggage; and to convince him that what you ſay is true, you are ready to allow him to ſend two of his truſty people to look over all the baggage, and they ſhall be treated kindly. This appears to me to be the only mode to deal with conſiderable tribes, wherever you may meet them, either on the deſert, or at the watering places; act always with ſpirit and reſolution, keeping prudence for your guide; and remember before you ſet out from Aleppo, to get your friends there to inform your meſſengers, Arabs, and ſervants, that they muſt on no pretence whatever enter into any diſpute, or give bad language to the Arabs you may meet; if they do, by your linguiſt informing you of the ſame, you will, if the ſhiek of the tribe requires it, deliver up the delinquent, to be puniſhed by the ſhiek's orders, agreeable to their own cuſtoms; this caution may be of general good, as your ſervants under your direction often act very improperly, from a belief you will take their parts. Much depends on your linguiſt; firſt, that you underſtand each other, and that he is always careful to explain your orders, and not confound them with his own notions or prejudices.

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I muſt ſay I have a very low and indifferent opinion of the Arabs; however, it would be cruel in me to condemn the whole tribes, on account of thoſe few I have had dealings with. And I have been credibly informed by a gentleman who has long reſided among them, that they have many valuable good qualities, intermixed with the bad, and that they are remarkable for mercy to their bitter enemies; that they are neither cruel nor revengeful. Robbing is their trade by profeſſion; ſtill they do not call taking your property, robbing; it is only a tax they think their due, as proprietors of the deſert, and they appear fully ſatisfied in receiving ſmall preſents, which they will always inſiſt on when they can: and it is remarkable, that after they have robbed you of every thing, if you go immediately and crave their protection, they will cover your nakedneſs, and give you a part of the ſame fare they have themſelves, and keep you with them until they can ſet you forward with another tribe on your route. When drove to neceſſity they will fight, but chiefly to defend themſelves; for they are, in all their meaſures, very careful of being wounded, as the loſs of either man or beaſt leſſens the conſequence of the ſhiek; ſo much for their characters.

The above principles of the Arabs, make it appear that they will always avoid extremes, ſo that when your force is not ſufficient to put them at defiance, behave with ſpirit and prudence, and treat with them with arms in your hand; as they never quit their ſpear, you ſhould never ground your muſquet while they are near you, and keep your piſtols loaded in your girdle.

At Aleppo, provide yourſelf with Arab coats, ſugar, and toys, proper for the Arabs, to the amount of one hundred piaſtres, and with a few hundred in caſh, you may ſatisfy many tribes; if you have no occaſion to give the preſents, you may always turn them into caſh at Bagdat or Buſſora. Theſe are the hints that occur to me at preſent, and can be greatly improved on by the gentlemen at Aleppo; and if every gentleman that either goes or returns over the deſert to Bagdat or Buſſora, would communicate the moſt remarkable events he meets with in his route, and leave them with the chief at Buſſora, and conſul of Aleppo, I doubt not but in time the deſert will be as eaſily paſſed as any of our Engliſh foreſts, heaths, &c. and leſs liable to *colliſions* than they are. Theſe remarks are calculated for only one European perſon; if more, the greater your force, and it is only adding camels, proviſions, &c. in proportion; and if a gentleman chooſes to go in company of a caravan, you have only to be careful in having a good ſaddle and Aleppo water, a horſe in the cold ſeaſon, with a greyhound and hawk, and you may have courſing every day, the whole deſert being full of hares and rabbits.

The following is a ſummary of the route—From Aleppo to Bagdat 466 miles; from Bagdat to Sammeva 151; from Sammeva to Buſſora by water 257: in all 874 Engliſh miles.

From Aleppo to Bagdat, the journey may be performed in twelve days, without any extraordinary fatigue; from Bagdat to Sammeva, in four, and in four more, to Buſſora.

VIEW OF THE TEA TRADE.

AT the commencement of the preceding century, and for ſeveral years ſubſequent to that period, tea was a beverage altogether unknown in Europe, except from the narratives of a few travellers who had taſted it in China, or other Aſiatic countries. Texeira, a Spaniard, who viſited the Eaſt Indies about the year 1600, ſaw the dried tea-leaves firſt in Malacca,

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and was there informed that the inhabitants of China prepared a drink from this commodity*. Olearius, a German, found the cuſtom of drinking tea prevalent among the Perſians anno 1633, and gives the following deſcription: "They drink a kind of black water, prepared from the decoction of a certain ſhrub called *cha* or *chia*, which the Uſbeck Tartars import from China. The leaves are long and taper, meaſuring nearly an inch, of a black colour when dried, and welked and ſhrivelled like worms†." In Ruſſia, at the period alluded to, tea was totally unknown, notwithſtanding the Aſiatic tributaries and allies of this empire had adopted the practice of drinking it from the Chineſe. Starkow, who in 1639 reſided at the court of the Mogul Chan Altyn, in quality of Ruſſian Ambaſſador, and partook of this beverage, ſays, "I know not whether they are the leaves of a tree, or an herb. They are boiled in water, with the addition of ſome milk." At his departure from the Mogul court, the Chan offered him 200 *bachtſcha* of tea, as a preſent for the Czar Michael Romanof; but the ambaſſador declined the compliment, as it would only incumber him with a commodity for which he had no uſe‡.

By whom, and in what country of Europe, the cuſtom of drinking tea was firſt introduced, is at preſent a problem of difficult ſolution. Its original conſumption, however, could not have been very conſiderable, as it was adminiſtered *medicinally*§, till the potent recommendation of Bontekoes brought it into general requeſt towards the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century. As the Dutch Eaſt India Company engroſſed, for a length of time, the greateſt ſhare of the Chineſe trade, a reference to the company's books in Amſterdam and other factories would conſiderably aſſiſt in aſcertaining the exact period at which tea began to be imported into Europe in large quantities. But, till this can be effected, we muſt content ourſelves with partial information. Franz Valentyn, a native of the Netherlands, who poſſeſſed extraordinary knowledge of Indian and Chineſe affairs, informs us, (in his "*Oud ennieuw Oſtindien*," iv. *Deel*. ii. *Stuck*, p. 18.) that in 1670, the uſe of tea was totally unknown in his native town of Dort. About this time, he adds, *Van den Broucke* and *Doctor de Leonardis* (in all probability two phyſicians) introduced the cuſtom of drinking tea, but with ſo little ſucceſs, that the new beverage was publicly ridiculed under the name of *heuwaſſeur* (hay-water). It ſhould ſeem, however, that in other towns and countries the cuſtom had become prevalent much earlier; for in 1665, we find a treatiſe publiſhed at Straſburgh, by Simon Pauli, on the "*Abuſe of Tobacco and Tea*; whence it may be juſtly inferred, that the conſumption of theſe articles muſt have increaſed conſiderably.

* Relaciones del Origin de los Reyes de Perſia y de Hormuz. Amberes, 1610 p. 19.

† Perſianiſche Reiſebeſchreibung, p. 325.

‡ Fiſcher's Sibiriſche Geſchichte. Vol. ii. p. 694—697.

§ Ramuſio, a writer who lived in the firſt half of the ſixteenth century, informs us, in his "Raccolte delle Navigazioni e Viaggi," vol. iii. p. 15, that the Chineſe drank tea as an antidote againſt the fever, headach, and indiſpoſition. This declaration is corroborated by the teſtimony of the Arabs, to whom we ſtand indebted for the firſt accounts of the tea-ſhrub, and its properties. Two Arabian travellers, whoſe report has been handed down to us by Renaudot, in his "Anciennes Relations de la Chine et des Indes," Paris 1718. page 31. and who viſited China about the year 850, related, "that the inhabitants of the empire had a medicinal beverage, named *ztah*, or *ſah*, which was prepared by pouring boiling water on the dried leaves of a certain herb. This decoction was reckoned an efficacious remedy in a variety of maladies."

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From Holland tea was introduced into England by Lords Arlington and Offory, anno 1666, but at so high a price, that a pound of tea sold for 3l. (Lettsom's "*Natural History of the Tea-Tree.*") A long time, however, elapsed, before it became an article of extensive traffic, though it was subjected to a duty as early as 1695. Even so recently as at the commencement of the present century, the London East India company were not in the habit of selling more than 50,000 pounds weight annually. In 1721, according to Valentyn, ("*Oud ennieuw Oostindien,*" *Deel* iv. *St.* ii. p. 18.) the quantity of tea imported from China to Holland, England, France, and Ostend, amounted to 4,100,000 lbs. Since that period the consumption of this commodity has so rapidly increased, that Europe, with the free ports of America, import annually 30,000,000 lbs.

The *Commutation Act*, which passed in 1784, may be said to have effected a perfect revolution in the tea trade of Europe. Prior to this measure, the English were, indeed, in the habit of importing a greater quantity of tea from China than any other *individual* nation; but the several powers of Europe collectively employed more shipping in this concern, and conjunctively brought home larger freights, of which, during the American war, not less than 12,000,000 lbs. were smuggled into England. During the years 1772 to 1784, the foreign powers of Holland, France, Denmark, Sweden, &c. employed 138 vessels, which imported from Canton 152,525,482 lbs. of tea. In the course of the same period, the English East India company sent out 107 vessels, which brought home 69,726,048 lbs, from which Ireland, and the British possessions in the West Indies, were supplied. At present, since the passing of the Commutation Act, Great Britain imports, in its own bottoms, from three to four times the quantity of tea, which it was formerly able to dispose of within itself, on account of the great encouragement held out to smuggling. In the same proportion as the English trade has increased, that of the other powers of Europe has declined. They not only no longer import such large quantities of tea as formerly, but frequently cannot even find purchasers at their public sales, though their prices have been considerably reduced.

Though the object of the embassy to China, under Lord Macartney, was not satisfactorily accomplished, the English still reap essential benefit from their trade to that empire. The quantity of tea sold by public auction, by the East India company, from Sept. 1. 1784, to Mar. 1, 1797, amounts to 216,273,685 lbs. for which the purchasers have paid 37,647,251l.* The Company's annual imports of tea, and other productions of China, amount, annually, on an average, to from 15 to 1600,000l. according to the purchase price in Canton. These goods, on their arrival in England, on account of the expence of freight, insurance, and other incidental charges, may be valued at 30,000,000l. The articles which they export in return, consisting of woollens, tin, lead, and iron, may be computed at 1,000,000l. In addition to these articles of home production, they carry to China, from their East India possessions, cotton†, sandal, wood, pepper, wax, ivory, &c. to the value of 700,000l. not including 250,000l. worth of opium, which is smuggled. The East India provinces of the British empire receive in return 330,000l. in silks, muslins, porcelain ware, tutenag, quicksilver, &c. Before the breaking out of the

* This sum includes the duty, amounting to 4,812,189l.

† Bombay sends annually to China 275,000 cwt. of Cotton, exclusive of other commodities. See Moore's "Narrative of an expedition against the Sultan of Mysore," page 321.

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preſent war, the reſt of Europe ſent out annually to Canton, goods to the value of 200,000l. for which they imported Chineſe commodities, of the value of 600,000l.

Of theſe articles of importation, tea forms the chief and principal commodity. The following is a correct regiſter of the Britiſh ſhips employed in this trade, from 1776 to 1795, with the returns of their freightage.

	No of ſhips.	*lbs.*
1776	5	3,402,415
1777	8	5,673,434
1778	9	6,392,788
1779	7	4,372,021
1780	—	—
1781‡	17	11,592,819

‡ The extraordinary increaſe of this year's imports, is to be attributed to no Engliſh veſſels having traded to Canton the preceding year, on account of the America and Indian war.

	No of Ships.	*lbs.*
1782	9	6,857,731
1783	6	4,138,295
1784	13	9,916,716
1785	14	10,583,628
1786	18	13,480,691
1787	27	20,610,919
1788	29	22,096,703
1789	27	20,141,745
1790	21	17,991,032
1791	25	22,369,620
1792	11	13,185,467
1793	16	16,005,414
1794	18	20,728,705
1795	21	23,733,810

The other powers of Europe, including the ſtates of North America, which have carried on a regular trade with Canton ſince the year 1785, have, during the above period, imported 229,742,540 lbs.

CHARACTER OF THE MODERN GREEKS.

Conquered Greece poliſhed Rome; but the conquerors were Romans. Conquered Greece did not poliſh Turkey; for the conquerors were Turks. The inſenſibility of theſe barbarians is aſtoniſhing: living amid the effulgence of genius, they have not caught one ſpark; they gaze with unfeeling ſtupidity on the wonder and boaſt of art, on their glorious monuments, on their temples, and conclude they were built by genii, and then deſtroy them, to burn the marble for lime to make ſtucco for their own taſteleſs houſes, whence the fine arts are baniſhed; where ignorance, tyranny, ſuperſtition, and groſs ſenſuality only dwell in ſad and ſtupidly-ſolemn pomp, or iſſuing out with ſavage fury, lay waſte the country round, and imbrue their hands in the blood of the helpleſs, murdering without remorſe thoſe they have conquered. Thus, the fineſt countries in the world are become deſerts; part inhabited by ſavage beaſts, and part by more ſavage men; the poor aborigines, ſculking in hiding places, like the timid hare (which epithet the Turks give them in deriſion) while thoſe beaſts of prey roam abroad.

Every object, moral and phyſical, the fair face of nature, and the intellectual energies of its inhabitants, have alike been blaſted and defiled by the harpy-touch of Turkiſh tyranny. As an inſtance of thoſe changes which the country has undergone, we need only conſider the iſland of Cyprus, now an almoſt uninhabited deſert, which was, not only in ancient times, but when it was taken by the Turks from the Venetians, populous and exceeding rich. The gentry lived like princes, in ſplendour, even the peaſants had each of them at leaſt a ſilver cup, knife, and fork. The number and excellency of its productions were wonderful. At preſent only a little cotton, ſome ſilk, and wine, and a few drugs, are its produce, all to no great amount. Even the ſalines, (or ſalt works) which

were

were so great a branch of revenue and commerce to the Venetians, have produced nothing since the Turks possessed it.

Of the defects of the Grecian character, some are doubtless owing to their ancient corruptions; but most of them take their rise in the humiliating state of depression in which they are held by the Turks. This degradation and servility of their situation has operated for centuries, and has consequently produced an accumulated effect on the mind; but were this weight taken off, the elasticity and vigour of the soul would have wide room for expansion; and though it cannot be expected that they would at once rise to the proud animation of their former heroes, they would doubtless display energies of mind, which the iron hand of despotism has long kept dormant and inert. It is rather astonishing that they have retained so much energy of character, and are not more abused; for, like noble coursers, they champ the bit, and spurn indignantly the yoke; when once freed from these, they will enter the course of glory.

When we view the Greeks in their more comprehensive character as a nation, their superiority over the Turks in knowledge is surprisingly great; they possess a great degree of genius and invention, and are of so lively an imagination, that they cannot tell the same story twice without varying the embellishments of circumstance and diction; added to this, both men and women speak much, and with wonderful volubility and boldness, and no people are such natural orators; numbers of them speak Italian, but all have an activity and sprightliness which strongly contrasts with the stupid and pompous gravity of the Turks; an European feels himself as it were at home with them, and among creatures of his own species, for with Mahommedans there is a distance, a non-assimilation, a total difference of ideas, and the more he knows their language, the more he perceives it; on the contrary, the more intimately he knows the Greeks, the more similar does he find them in habits and manners to other Europaens; their bad reputation is owing more to the slander of the French (their mortal enemies) than to so great a degree of demerit. In general, they are an agreeable and a serviceable people, but they are much given to levity, immoderately ambitious, and fond of honourable distinctions; but this very ambition, now a weakness, when they have nobler objects to pursue, will lead them to greatness.

They bear the Turkish yoke with greater impatience than other Christians, (who have long ceased to struggle against it) and possess a spirit of enterprise, which, however, ridiculed by some authors, often prompts them to noble atchievements. Their ancient empire is fresh in their memory; it is the subject of their popular songs, and they speak of it in common conversation as a recent event.

That they possess a firm and manly courage, notwithstanding the insinuations of their calumniators, has been too often testified to be in the least doubtful; the instances which they have displayed in the Russian service have been truly striking. They are passionate, and sometimes given to assassination; but except in Zante and Cephalonia, the stiletto is not so frequent with them as with the Italians, whom they in general resemble; the best of them, if we add more energy, being very similar in character to the Venetians, and the worst to the Genoese. The most observable difference in the Grecian character is between those of Constantinople and their countrymen of the islands. The merchants and lower orders of the Constantinopolitan Greeks have, indeed, no very marked character; they are much the same as trading Christians in all parts of the empire, that is to say, as crafty and fraudulent as the

Jews, but leſs ſo than the Armenians, who are the moſt ſubtle of all uſurers.

Thoſe of Macedonia are robuſt, courageous, and ſomewhat ferocious; thoſe of Athens and Attica are ſtill remarkably witty and ſharp; all the iſlanders are lively and gay, fond of ſinging and dancing to an exceſs, affable, hoſpitable, and good-natured; in ſhort, they are the beſt; thoſe of the Morea are much given to piracy; but it is not to be wondered at, conſidering the cruel treatment they have met with, and the ſtruggles they are continually making againſt the Turks. Albania, Epirus, and in general the mountaineers, are a very warlike, brave people, but very ſavage, and make little ſcruple of killing and robbing travellers; a Turk cannot venture in their country alone; there is no man in the country but would make a merit in ſhooting him—and is this to be wondered at?

The Greeks of Zante and Cephalonia, ſubject to the Venetians, are famous for ſtabbing with knives.

In ſome iſlands the people are not handſome. In Metalina, the women are remarkable for very large breaſts. In Tino, the women are almoſt all beauties, and there the true antique head is to be found.

In general, the people of the iſlands have grand and noble features. From different faces you may put together, in walking through a market-place, the heads of Apollo and of the fineſt ancient ſtatues.

PARTICULARS RELATIVE TO THE ISLAND OF ST DOMINGO.

Port-au-Prince.

WHEN a perſon has been acquainted in France with coloniſts, and above all with Creole coloniſts, he cannot approach Port-au-Prince, now become the reſidence of the civil and military powers, the capital of the richeſt country on the face of the globe! the moſt fertile in delights! the throne of luxury! the centre of voluptuouſneſs! without experiencing that ſecret ſhivering, that pleaſing and vague anxiety, which precedes admiration, and prepares the ſoul for enthuſiaſm. To be brief: I entered between two rows of huts, jolting along a duſty track called a ſtreet, and ſearching in vain for Perſepolis, among a chaotic maſs of wooden barracks.

I defy, Sir, the moſt volcanic imagination to reſiſt the firſt effects of ſuch a ſurpriſe. In a ſtate of ſtupefaction, I aſked my companion where we were? At Port-au-Prince—Yes, juſt as we are at Paris, in the ſuburbs of St Marceau, I ſuppoſe?—You will ſee that to-morrow.

The next day, although my eagerneſs to ſatisfy myſelf made me get up before the ſun, yet ten o'clock ſurpriſed me, ſtill ſeeking the true Port-au-Prince, the *Pot-au-Pince* of the inhabitants (the Creolian mode of pronounciation) without being able to find it. I diſcovered, indeed, from time to time, ſome caſas, more large, more ornamented than the reſt. An inſulated edifice of ſtone, and of a tolerably regular conſtruction, announced to me the reſidence of the governor; I ſaw, alſo, a market-place, which the preſent intendant, Monſieur Barbé de Marbois, has lately decorated with two fountains, in a good taſte, but which are abſolutely inacceſſible from the filth which the negroes, who come for water, never fail to leave behind them. Adjoining this place, on a riſing ground which overlooks it, I obſerved, too, a little eſplanade, planted with a few rows of young trees, and a baſon with a *jet d'eau* in the midſt of it, deſtined to ſerve for a terrace to the new government offices, which they propoſe building—but all this, even granting the trees were more regular than they are, would ſcarce conſtitute a city of the third

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rank with us. Beſides, moſt of this is the work of Monſieur de Marbois, and of the laſt two or three years; and clearly proves that the inhabitants of St Domingo ſaw, and ſtill ſee, the preſent Port-au-Prince as the Jews are ſaid to ſee the New Jeruſalem in the old one.

Treatment of the Negroes.

A LADY whom I have ſeen, a young Lady, and one of the handſomeſt in the iſland, gave a grand dinner. Furious at ſeeing a diſh of paſtry brought to the table overdone, ſhe ordered her negroe cook to be ſeized, and thrown into the oven, yet glowing with heat. And this horrible megæra, whoſe name I ſuppreſs out of reſpect to her family; this infernal fiend, whom public execration ought to drive with every mark of abhorrence from ſociety; this worthy rival of the too famous Chaperon, is followed and admired, for ſhe is rich and beautiful.

So much for what I have heard, and now for what I have ſeen.

The day after my return, I was walking before the caſa of a planter with one of his neighbours, when we overheard him bid a negro go into the incloſure of this very neighbour, pull up two young trees which he pointed out to him, and re-plant them immediately on a terrace he was then forming. The negro went: the neighbour followed him, ſurpriſed him in the fact, and brought him to his maſter, whom I had by this time joined in the hope of witneſſing a ſcene of confuſion which promiſed to be amuſing.

Conceive, Sir, what paſſed in my mind, when, on the complaint of the neighbour, I heard the maſter coldly order another of his negroes to tie the pretended culprit to a ladder, and give him a hundred laſhes! We were both of us ſtruck with ſuch aſtoniſhment, that, ſtupified, pale, and ſhuddering, while the unhappy negro received the barbarous chaſtiſement in ſilence, we looked at one another, without being able to utter a ſingle word—And he who ordered, he who thus puniſhed his own crime on the blind inſtrument of his will; at once the daſtardly perpetrator and the unfeeling witneſs of the moſt atrocious injuſtice, is here one of the firſt organs of the law, the official protector of innocence! Heavens! if a pitiful reſpect of decorum forbids me to devote the name of this monſter to eternal infamy, let me at leaſt be permitted to hope that Divine juſtice will hear the cries of the ſufferer, and ſooner or later, accumulate, on the tyrant's head, all the weight of its vengeance.

Baron Wimpffen's Voyage.

THE HISTORY OF KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, AND TASTE, IN GREAT BRITAIN,

DURING THE REIGN OF KING CHARLES II.

Concluded from page 825.

WITH theſe divines may be connected the names of Worthington and Lloyd. The former, a man of great learning and talents, 'of eminent piety, and great humility, who practiſed (as Burnett expreſſes it) a moſt ſublime way of ſelf-denial and devotion.' Lloyd was educated under Biſhop Wilkins, and was a moſt profound critic in the claſſical authors, and ſtill more an adept in ſcriptural learning. His memory indeed was a complete concordance; he was an exact hiſtorian, and the moſt learned in chronology of all the divines of that period. Biſhop Wilkins was accuſtomed to ſay of him, that he had the greateſt ſhare of learning in ready caſh, of any man with whom he was ever acquainted. The principles of theſe men were rational and moderate in moſt inſtances. They were equally inimical to irreligion and enthuſiaſm. They loved the church, and approved the

liturgy: but they did not consider it as unlawful to preach under another form of ecclesiastical government. They maintained a friendly intercourse and correspondence with those who differed from them in sentiment, and admitted of great freedom of opinion respecting speculative topics, both in philosophy and theology. From this liberality of sentiment, the more bigoted party in the church branded them with the name of Latitudinarians; and some of their more inveterate enemies unjustly charged them with favouring the doctrines of the Socinian sect.

From the same school proceeded Stillingfleet, Tillotson, and Patrick. The first of these was a man of great learning, but of somewhat a reserved and haughty disposition.—Before the Restoration he had published his '*Irenicum*, or a Weapon Salve for the Church's Wounds,' a quaint title, which sounds but awkwardly to a modern ear; but the work contains a considerable fund of sound erudition. 'His notion (says Burnett) was, that the apostles had settled the church in a constitution of bishops, priests, and deacons, but had made no perpetual law about it, having only taken it in, as they did many other things, from the customs and practice of the synagogue; from which he inferred, that certainly the constitution was lawful, since authorised by them, but not necessary, since they had made no settled law concerning it.' In maturer age he retracted much of these opinions, and declared, 'that there were many things in the Irenicum, which, if he were to write again, he would not say: some which show his youth, and want of due consideration; others which he yielded too far, in hopes of gaining the dissenting parties to the church of England.'

He had not completed his twenty-seventh year, when, in 1662, he published his '*Origines Sacræ*, or a rational Account of the Grounds of natural and revealed Religion;' a work which abounds in curious information, and from which an industrious man, who was possessed of a good style, might extract an admirable defence of revelation against the ignorant and shallow attacks of modern infidels. The learning and industry of Stillingfleet at this early period was so considerable, that Bishop Sanderson, who had only known him by his works, when introduced to him at his primary visitation, was astonished to find him so young a man, and could hardly believe him to be the same. 'I expected,' said he, 'to find one as considerable for his years as for his learning.' After the Revolution, when every man in the church, who was eminent for his learning, and irreproachable in his moral conduct, was preferred, Stillingfleet was made Bishop of Worcester. He added, however, no new laurels to those he had reaped in his youth, by a metaphysical controversy into which he entered with Mr Locke, of which we shall have hereafter to treat. The literary labours of Patrick and Tillotson will also come more properly under review in one of the succeeding reigns.

It was this society of divines who first reformed the English style of preaching.—'Before them (Bishop Burnett informs us) it was overrun with pedantry. The sermon contained a great mixture of quotations from fathers and ancient writers, a long opening of a text, with the concordance of every word in it, and all concluding in some, but very short practical applications, according to the subject or the occasion. This (he adds) was both long and heavy, when all was *pye balled*, full of many sayings of different languages, in short, the common style of sermons was either very flat and low, or swelled up with rhetoric to a false pitch of a wrong sublime.'

The witty and eccentric South will scarcely be ranked among the improvers

provers of pulpit eloquence in this country; yet his sermons will be read, and on some accounts admired, while English literature shall hold its place in the commonwealth of learning. If we may credit Anthony Wood, who, though a dull man, was apparently honest, this extraordinary genius was, in the early part of his life, more directed by self interest than became either a Christian or a scholar. While the independents were predominant during the usurpation of Cromwell, he sedulously paid his court to the ruling party, and was in favour with their leaders; when the presbyterians rose again into popularity and respect, South broke off all connection with his former patrons, and on the Restoration, the rapid effusions of his eloquence were directed with equal violence against independents and the presbytery. His ungovernable temper, notwithstanding the flexibility of his principles, appears to have formed a bar to his promotion; and a prebend of Westminister, which he obtained through the patronage of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon, appears to have been his highest preferment. In his sermons there is more wit than eloquence, more imagination than learning. His reasoning, however, is often close, and his style is bold and fluent. Like Swift, who appears to have both admired and imitated him, he always chooses the most appropriate expression, however debased by its commonness or vulgarity. He possessed excellent talents, but in the pulpit they appear to have been misplaced. He was probably of too lively and versatile a disposition to engage in any work of labour and of erudition. The principal of his literary productions are his sermons, though toward the close of life he engaged in a controversy with Dr Sherlock, concerning the Trinity, in which it is generally agreed, by at least the orthodox party, that South had the better of the argument.

The amiable and accomplished Barrow was of a character very different from his contemporary South. It is some credit to the heads of the university of Cambridge, that he obtained a fellowship and university honours, under the republican government, notwithstanding his well-known attachment to royalty. On the Restoration, like most men of character and merit, he remained unnoticed, but was at length made Master of the Trinity college. His mind was comprehensive, his industry indefatigable; and no stronger proof can be adduced of his various powers, than the fact of his having filled with reputation the mathematical chairs both at Gresham college and Cambridge, and also the Greek professorship at the latter place. Before the end of his life he resigned the mathematical chair at Cambridge to the justly celebrated Newton, and there is a tradition in the university, that he did it on conscientious motives; and that he was no sooner acquainted with Newton's merits (who was then a very young man) than, with a modesty which is rarely to be found, he pronounced himself unworthy any longer to preside in that department of science. This excellent and extraordinary man died at the early age of forty-seven.

Though he excelled in so many branches of learning, yet theology and ethics were the favourite sciences with Barrow. Yet, he has left but few entire treatises on these subjects, unless we consider his treatise on the Pope's supremacy, an unanswerable work, as belonging to this department, though it is rather to be classed under that of ecclesiastical history. His sermons on the articles of the Christian faith may however be considered as a complete treatise, or rather a body of divinity; and indeed, according to the remark of Le Clerc, every sermon is a treatise or dissertation, complete in all its parts, rather than an oration. Charles II, who

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was more deficient in principle than in talents, remarked of Barrow, 'that he was an unfair preacher, because he exhausted every subject, and left no room for others to come after him.' His sermons were in fact no less remarkable for their length than for their excellence. He was once requested by the dean of Westminister to preach at the abbey. He divided his sermon into two parts, and at the entreaty of the dean consented to preach only *half* of it, but after having proceeded a full hour, the populace, who waited without to see the tombs, became impatient, and struck up the full organ to silence him. He preached once for three hours and a half before the Lord Mayor and aldermen, and when asked if he was not tired, he replied, 'I began to be a little weary with standing.'

The style of Barrow is clear, uniform, and chaste. He never rises to what may be termed the sublime, and his productions are not orations, but essays or dissertations, as has been already remarked. They are a treasure of religious and moral learning, nor are there any productions in the language, which may be read with more profit by students in theology.

The pious and excellent Bishop Fell is better known as the publisher of the Whole Duty of Man, and some other short and practical treatises by the same author, than by any works which bear his own name. There are perhaps few phenomena in our literary annals more extraordinary than the mystery in which the name of the author of these treatises is involved; the style is not that of Bishop Fell, nor is there any good reason to be assigned why he should be studious of concealment. The most probable conjecture is, that these works were the production of some pious and modest layman, perhaps of superior rank, who might conceive that if he were known as the writer, his own life and conduct might be drawn into a comparison with his precepts, or that their utility might be lessened by some circumstance connected with the author. Ken, Bishop of Bath and Wells, was more of a poet than a divine, though most of his compositions were in a religious strain, some of which are still popular. This prelate attended assiduously the dying moments of Charles II, but his exhortations had but little effect on the dying profligate, who ordered the room to be cleared of the protestant prelates, and took refuge finally in the delusions of the church of Rome.

'It was in the licentious reign of Charles II, (says Mrs Macaulay) that writings were first publicly broached, which called in question the divine authority of Christ's mission, and all those glorious promises of the gospel, which, if firmly believed, must in a great measure prevail over human vice and infirmity. It was in this licentious age that those baneful systems of philosophy were revived, which, by calling in question the future existence of man, strip the deity of the attributes of justice and goodness; destroy every benevolent end in the creation, render it the splendid work, of an ingenious and all powerful artist, devoid of every principle of true wisdom and greatness; set loose the vitious and inordinate affections of the artful and the powerful to prey on the weak, the simple, and the injudicious; and by adding the insupportable horrors of despair to the afflictions of the unfortunate, increase the evils of human existence beyond the possibility of human bearing: hence proceed the numerous suicides, and all those acts of violence and desperation, which help to sadden the annals of English history.' Against these infamous productions, the wit and acuteness of South, the labour of Bramhall, and the unmeasureable erudition and unanswerable agument of Cudworth were directed, and not in vain: for not an objection was left unanswered, not a cavil

cavil unexpoſed. Unfortunately, ſpeculative wickedneſs has ever a powerful ally in the natural depravity of the human heart, and men will commonly attend to what flatters their paſſions in preference to a ſyſtem which reſtrains them. If there were no wicked men there would be no unbelievers; and, as Biſhop Atterbury ſomewhere remarks—It is not a freedom of thinking for which theſe men contend, but a freedom of acting and living as they pleaſe. To the young and unlearned, for it is only the unlearned, or the half learned, that can be aſſailed by the miſerable ſophiſtry of modern infidels, we may recommend the ſerious peruſal of Biſhop Burnett's account of the life and death of the witty and profligate Earl of Rocheſter, a man of great talents, whom a perverted education, vicious aſſociates, and ungovernable paſſions, had made an unbeliever; but who was no ſooner made acquainted with the proofs of Chriſtianity than he yielded to them his entire conviction, and found, in thoſe truths which he had before rejected, the only conſolation during his expiring moments.

The truths of religion were not only defended ably and with ſucceſs by the divines of the eſtabliſhed church at this period, but by ſome of the nonconformiſt miniſters, who were not inferior to their brethern of the eſtabliſhment either in erudition or ability. Among the firſt of theſe we may conſider the venerable Richard Baxter, whoſe 'Unreaſonableneſs of Infidelity,' and 'Catholic Theology,' may be ſtill read with infinite advantage. Of this able and laborious writer, the ſaying of Dr Barrow is, on the whole, a juſt character—'That his practical writings were never mended, his controverſial ſeldom confuted;' and the candid and liberal Burnett remarks of him, he 'was a man of great piety: and if he had not meddled in too many things, would have been eſteemed one of the moſt learned men of the age. He wrote near 200 books, of theſe three are large folios. He had a very moving and pathetical way of writing, and was his whole life a man of great zeal, and much ſimplicity; but was moſt unhappily ſubtle and metaphiſical in every thing.' Mr Baxter was one of the moſt unhappy examples of the black ingratitude of the Britiſh Tiberius. On the Reſtoration, for his zeal and loyalty he was made chaplain to the King; and the diſcerning Clarendon laboured hard to remove his ſcruples, and reconcile him to the church. After the diſgrace of that miniſter his whole life was a continued ſcene of perſecution, and he was an inhabitant ſucceſſively of moſt of the priſons in the metropolis. Toward the end of his life he had the misfortune to be tried for a libel before the execrable Jefferies, who wreſted ſome paſſages in his annotations on the New Teſtament from their legitimate meaning into a cenſure on epiſcopacy in general, and a compliant and daſtardly jury found him guilty. The trial is upon record, in which the greatneſs of mind diſplayed by the accuſed, forms a ſingular contraſt to the low and vulgar abuſe of the illiterate Jefferies; and he appears a Socrates before a contemptible tribunal. He however lived to ſee the downfall of his perſecutors, and to partake of the bleſſings of liberty which were the effects of the glorious revolution of 1688; an era now equally abuſed by the extravagant demoerats, and by the wretched and miſguided tories, but which will ever be held in juſt eſtimation by every man who poſſeſſes the genuine ſentiments that become an Engliſhman.

Of the celebrated Edmund Calamy we had occaſion to ſpeak in our laſt volume: his writings are more controverſial than thoſe of Baxter. Dr William Bates, the friend and co-adjutor of Mr Baxter in the Savoy conference, was alſo a man of conſider-

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able erudition. 'He is univerſally underſtood (ſays the late editor of the Biographia Britannica) to have been the politeſt writer among the non-conformiſts of the laſt century.' To theſe we may add the names of Howe, Jacombe, and Wilde, all of them eminent as preachers, and uſeful as writers. The former of theſe divines is characteriſed by Anthony Wood, who is not very favourable to the preſbyterian party, as 'a perſon of neat and polite parts, and not of that ſour and unpleaſant converſe, as moſt of his perſuaſion were; ſo moderate alſo and calm in thoſe ſmaller matters under debate between the church and his party, that he had not ſo much as once intereſted himſelf in quarrels of this kind, but hath applied himſelf to more beneficial and uſeful diſcoveries on practical ſubjects.'

Of the theological writings of the other ſectaries but few are at preſent held in much eſteem; but Barclay's Apology for the Quakers will be read as long as ſound learning, acute reaſoning, and animation and correctneſs of ſtyle, continue to be admired. The preface, addreſſed to Charles II, is a model of true eloquence, and the ſcriptural arguments of the author againſt war will never be refuted.

ORIGINAL LETTER BY STERNE TO LORD EFFINGHAM.

Coxwould, near Eaſingwould,
May 29. 1706.

MY GOOD LORD,

(For I belive you from my heart to be ſo, or my pen would not have belied my opinion of you: and ſince I've begun with an article of belief, give me leave to add, that *I belive* you have power to be any thing—but no thanks to you—ſo I hope you render them to whom they are due, and ſo God proſper you!) As all this is included in a parentheſis, your Lordſhip has a right to leave it out—It will not hurt the ſenſe—I mean your own; for as for mine—the point has been long ſettled by the world—tho' by the by, I intend to puzzle it by ſome feeble effort in the work I am about—tho', was I to tell you the ſubject of the firſt Sermon I've begun with, you would think it ſo truly Shandæan, that no after-wit would bring me off—Nothing venture—nothing have: all which being duly perpended and conſidered by your Lordſhip, I return you thanks for your ſubſcription; as I do to the *aimable Comteſſe votre chere mere*, for the honour of her name, &c.

Hall left me bleeding to death at York of a ſmall veſſel in my lungs—The deuce take theſe bellows of mine: I muſt get 'em ſtopped, or I ſhall never live to *perſifler* Lord Effingham again.—Apropos! will you be at York races? for next to the pleaſure of getting my five and forty ſhillings out of your hands, I know nothing will give me more delight than to ſee you, * * *, great Scroope, and Blaquiere. In my name preſent not my brotherly love [but my fraternal pity to ——. What ſhould not ſuch a fool pop into my head? My own vile paſſions, and that's the truth of the matter—and ſo I croſs it all out*.]

If the whole letter had been ſerved the ſame way, it would not have fared the worſe with your Lordſhip; but I ſhould have loſt the honour and ſatisfaction of ſaying that I am,

With the higheſt eſteem for your character and talents,
My Lord,
Your moſt faithful and
obliged humble ſervant,
L. STERNE.

To the Rt Hon. Ld Viſc. Effingham,
St James' Coffee houſe, London.

* The encloſed ſentence between crotchets is croſſed out in the original.

THE WIDOW; A FRAGMENT.

——'YES! (faid the diſconſolate Eliza, as ſhe paid her uſual viſit, accompanied by her little ſon, to the tomb of her huſband)—Yes; there is ſomething in virtuous grief, which is very different from wretchedneſs. The love of my youth,—the joy of my heart,—my comfort,—my all,—is gone; but the memory of our felicity,—the conſciouſneſs of ſincerity and fidelity,—remain. His child,—his darling boy,—the image of his perſon and his heart,—is my companion. He reflects the image of his father, and replaces him in my heart.—Miſery can proceed from reflections.—The diſpenſations of providence may inflict apparent evils, even on the good and virtuous; but when the wondrous ways of heaven ſhall be explained to mortals, they will, no doubt, be found to be myſterious bleſſings. To the will of heaven I yield, in confidence of its juſtice—in humble hope of its beneficence. I feel in my heart, that very different is the melancholy and misfortune of the benevolent, from the diſappointment and anguiſh of the ſelfiſh and the wicked. To my child, in whom is reſtored to me the image of his father; who, from the untainted purity of early youth, exhibits the virtues his father had matured by manly reaſon, will I dedicate my attention. I will train him to juſtice,—to benevolence. I will exhort him to expand his mind by uſeful knowledge; to become like his father. He ſhall avoid the ſelfiſh; he ſhall avoid the forbid; he ſhall be the friend of his fellow creatures,—the friend of the uſeful,—the friend of the poor. To relieve the oppreſſed ſhall be his higheſt pleaſure, as it was his father's. Never ſhall he inſult the low: never ſhall he flatter the proud. He ſhall love his country as his country ought to be loved: he ſhall promote the happineſs of the laborious poor; he ſhall diſpiſe the arrogance of the pampered ſtateſman. No ſophiſtic arguments relative to the intereſts of ſociety, and ſocial inſtitutions, ſhall miſlead him; he ſhall be true to the intereſts of humble virtue. He ſhall—alas! how much I promiſe! how little may it be in my power to perform!—Yet, in reſolutions like theſe, to have reſolved is merit: by reſolving I wiſh—I wiſh my darling ſon may prove like his father.'

She ſat down on the tomb of her huſband,—ſhe embraced her boy,—ſhe ſhed delicious tears, the tears of virtue. Even her ſorrows far tranſcended in enjoyment all the mean delight reſulting from the gain of the ſelfiſh, or the oſtentation of the proud.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Dec. 3. The Houſe having reſolved itſelf into a committee of Ways and Means,

Mr Pitt roſe.—Before he entered on the important matter which he had to propoſe to the Committee, he deemed it neceſſary, he ſaid, to ſtate briefly the amount of the ſupplies which would probably be called for in the year enſuing; in order that, having the total before them, the Committee might form their conſideration, and direct their judgment, with reſpect to the propriety of raiſing within the year at leaſt a great part of the ſums that would be neceſſary. There could be little doubt with reſpect to the amount of the ſeveral charges, the greater part of which had already been voted in the Committee of Supply. The eſtimates were now made out in ſo ſimple and practical a manner, that no difficulty whatever could occur in aſcertaining our current expences, as would appear on a review and compariſon of the eſtimates and expences of the laſt year. The eſtimates for the enſuing year were all before the Houſe, excepting that of the Tranſport Board, which he had not yet received, but which he thought he could ſafely calculate at 70,000l. In the other eſtimates, the expences of the navy for the enſuing year were taken, including the extraordinaries at 13,642,000l. This was preciſely the ſame with the eſtimates of laſt year, which, on experiment, had been found ample; and he therefore ſhould not move any augmentation. The army eſtimates were 8,840,000l. The extraordinaries 3,200,000l. To theſe were

to be added, 1,000,000l. which had been iſſued on a vote of credit, and for which, no proviſion having been made for its payment, muſt now come under the head of Ways and Means. This, with the other extraordinaries, would require a further ſum of 2,000,000l.—The Ordnance 1,570,000l. Miſcellaneous ſervices 600,000l. To the Commiſſioners for liquidating the national debt, in addition to the annual million, 200,000l. The deficiency of grants, which included the intereſts due to the bank, for ſums which had been advanced, and ſince diſcharged, 365,000l.—The diſcount on the late loan, 200,000l. Exchequer bills, 300,000l. Deficiency of land and malt, 300,000l. Theſe were the various articles of ſupply neceſſary for the ſervice of the enſuing year, and for which it would be neceſſary to provide Ways and Means. He would briefly recapitulate them to the Committee——They amounted in the whole to 29,272,000l.

SUPPLIES.

Navy, allowing 120,000 men, at 7l. each man	8,400,000
Extraordinaries for ditto	5,244,000
Army with its Extraordinaries	8,840,000
Miſcellaneous and other ſervices	6,788,000
Total	29,272,000

There was no material difference between theſe and the eſtimates of laſt year, and the expenditure was, in part, to be covered from the ſame reſources. In the ways and means, he ſhould take land and malt, as uſual, at 2,750,000l. the lottery, 200,000l. The growing produce of the conſolidated fund had been taken at 2,200,000l. but this ſum had been greatly diminiſhed, he muſt obſerve, from what had been expected, by ſeveral charges of arrears, and particularly by the payments which he had to make on the Imperial loan. It would receive a correſpondent increaſe by the payment of 800,000l. which had been advanced to the merchants of Grenada, and St Vincent. He ſhould, however, take it only at 1,500,000l.—The produce of the tax on the convoys had been a matter of doubt with thoſe who could ſcarcely give credit to the extenſive growth of our commerce, but it had ſo far ſurpaſſed every expectation as to produce no leſs than 1,200,000l. There was every reaſon to believe that its amount would ſtill be greater, a circumſtance which muſt be more ſatisfactory, and it ſhewed at once the extent of our reſources, and the proſperity of our revenue. At preſent, when nearly the whole of the Weſt India trade centered in this iſland, he thought it would be adviſeable to increaſe the revenue by withholding the drawbacks on the Weſt India goods exported. It was not his intention to enter into the particular details on this ſubject; but conſidering it as offering a great addition to the revenue, he ſhould take the laſt article as likely to produce in the next year 1,700,000l. Theſe ſums ſtated in recapitulation,

Land and Malt, -	L. 2,750,000
Lottery - - -	200,000
Growing produce of conſolidating funds, -	1,500,000
Convoys and drawbacks,	1,700,000
Would produce	L. 6,150,000

The difference (about 23,000,000l.) between this ſum and the amount of the ſupply was to be provided for either by taxes or by loan; and the only queſtion was, how the ſum of twenty-three millions was to be provided. He truſted that the Houſe would purſue the ſame wiſe policy which they had adopted in the laſt ſeſſion of Parliament, by reducing the amount of the loan, and raiſing as much as was poſſible of the ſupplies within the year. The triplement of the aſſeſſed taxes laſt year was deſtined to cover the ſum of 8,000,000l. raiſed for the ſervice of the year. But they had been ſo greatly reduced, partly from evaſion, and partly by the modifications which were deemed expedient, as to fall conſiderably ſhort of their intended purpoſe. The voluntary contributions, it was true, had made up ſome of this difference; yet he could not ſpeak without the utmoſt indignation and concern of the evaſions which had been ſo felfiſhly practiſed, at a moment ſo perilous and trying to the country at large. The only conſolation which he felt on this ſubject was in the zeal and liberality which had appeared, not only in this iſland, but in all its dependencies, the latter of which had ſhewn themſelves to be truely worthy of their connection with the

the mother kingdom. He derived the utmoſt ſatisfaction, therefore, from the meaſure adopted laſt year, as well as a full confidence in its wiſdom and propriety. Some means muſt, however, be purſued to render it more efficacious. The Houſe being convinced of the ſound policy of raiſing a great part of the ſupplies within the year, all that remained was for them to conſider in what way it could be made to embrace all property, and how the evaſions and inequalities were to be removed. A large viſible criterion had been taken for the purpoſe of making the meaſure at once practical and extenſive; yet it was found, on experiment, that a large portion of property had eſcaped from taxation. It was not that the calculations were erroneous or improper; but the abatements which were made, and the looſe ſtatements of the parties, where nothing was ſpecified or detailed, had ſubſtracted much from the efficacy of the meaſure. The ſituation of public affairs now made it neceſſary to reſort to ſome meaſure which ſhould be adopted to enforce the payment, and to prevent ſuch frauds as had been ſhameleſsly practiſed. Every honeſt and well diſpoſed man would, no doubt, be ready to contribute a *tenth* of his income in the preſent exigency. With thoſe of a contrary deſcription it was neceſſary to purſue a mode of enquiry more ſpecific and more decided, particularly if this could be done without injury to perſons in a commercial line. If, by a judicious change, that Houſe could prevent undue abatements from being made; if they could remove the crying grievances of inaccuracy and fraud, they would contribute materially to the honour as well as to the intereſt of the nation. It was neceſſary, for this purpoſe, that the meaſure ſhould be enforced and extended by a further enquiry; and this plan, if effectually purſued, would, in his opinion, contribute materially to the ſafety, the credit, and the proſperity of the nation. To prevent evaſion, and to make this duty more productive, it would be neceſſary that they ſhould lay aſide all *preſumption* with reſpect to the circumſtances of the individual. It would be proper that each perſon ſhould give in a ſpecific return of the ſeveral branches of his income. If the returns were incorrect, and if evaſion was ſtill attempted, the ſchedule ſhould be returned to the individual, until corrected by himſelf, or amended by thoſe who may be ſuppoſed to have a knowledge of his circumſtances. The former mode having been ineffectual, it became neceſſary, at the preſent criſis, to reſort to an extenſive and comprehenſive meaſure. The details of this buſineſs would undoubtedly require their moſt ſerious conſideration.—At preſent therefore he ſhould only ſubmit the mere outline of the plan, ſubject to future correction.

It will readily occur (ſaid Mr Pitt), that one of the firſt things in any diſcretionary meaſure to aſcertain the amount of incomes, is to determine what ſpecies of Commiſſioners ſhall be appointed to carry the act into execution. In doing this, I ſhould conceive the Committee will have in view three principal objects. Firſt, that the Commiſſioners ſhall be perſons as reſpectable in their ſituation and rank in life, as independent of all real or imputed influence, and as likely to diſcharge the duties of their ſtations with as much ability and attention as poſſible. I believe, Sir, the Committee will be of opinion, that among the Commiſſioners, from whoſe voluntary ſervices in the different counties the country has derived ſuch benefit, may be expected to be found men who will beſt anſwer the deſcription I have juſt given. I ſhould propoſe that all theſe Commiſſioners ſhould poſſeſs a certain qualification, not leſs than 300l. a year; to theſe I ſhould ſuggeſt the propriety of adding a certain number of perſons reſident in the different diviſions who ſhould poſſeſs the ſame qualification of 3000l. a year; that ſuch liſts of Commiſſioners ſhould be referred to the two laſt Grand Juries for each county, who ſhould ſelect a proper number for each diviſion, and a ſmaller number for appeals. In the great cities, and in great commercial places, ſome ſpecial proviſions may be neceſſary. Suppoſing the Commiſſioners to be appointed, the next ſhape in which the meaſure preſents itſelf to our contemplation, is the manner of bringing before the Commiſſioners the firſt view of the charge which each individual is to contribute, adopting as a principle, in the ſame manner as was done in the aſſeſſed tax bill, that no perſons whoſe incomes are

under 60l. a year ſhall pay any thing. I propoſe that every perſon ſhall ſtate what that ſum is which he is willing to contribute, under a declaration that what he ſo contributes is not leſs than one tenth part of his income. The difference between this and the former is, that inſtead of a treble and quadruple aſſeſſment, the firſt charge will be from the declarations of the parties themſelves. If they are willing to pay it without a reference to what proportion it bears to their amount, they may pay it. But the next point to be conſidered is, in what manner this declaration ſhall be checked and aſcertained. With this view of the ſubject, knowing how difficult it is to aſcertain the amount of a man's income, I do not think that the circumſtance of whether that charge is or is not ſufficient, ſhould be left in the firſt inſtance to the Commiſſioners; but that other means ſhould be adopted of bringing that ſubject before them; and the way I ſhould propoſe is not by any general public ſtatement of income, but that it ſhould be made the duty of ſome officers in each diſtrict to lay before the Commiſſioners any grounds of doubt that they may entertain. Theſe ſtatements from individuals, I propoſe, ſhall be ſent to the Surveyors of taxes, or ſome other officers appointed for that purpoſe, and all that they ſhall only expreſs their doubts, and the foundation of them; and then the Commiſſioners ſhall call for further explanation.

When we come to conſider, Sir, what we have hitherto ſeen of the operation of the aſſeſſed tax bill; when we recollect that much of the defalcation has ariſen from the generality of the declarations required; that perſons did not ſtate from what ſources their income was derived, or by what rules they calculated the amount of it: I ſay, Sir, when we conſider theſe things, we muſt ſee that it has enabled perſons who, if the naked fact were preſented to them, would ſtart from any thing deliberately falſe, to give in ſtatements thus looſe and vague. Yet amidſt all theſe conſiderations, numerous and notorious as the evaſions under the aſſeſſed tax bill have been, it is ſtill ground for exultation and pride, that the wealth and reſources of the country have been proved to be ſo abundant. The check which I ſhould propoſe in this new bill is, that when theſe grounds of doubt have been tranſmitted to the Commiſſioners, they ſhall have the power of requiring a ſpecification of income ariſing from the different branches, and according to the forms preſcribed in a ſchedule to be annexed to the act. By requiring the blanks in this ſchedule to be filled up; by demanding an account of what income a man poſſeſſes under the various heads, whether it ariſes from land, from a profeſſion, or from trade: by preſenting it in that definite form, a material check will be formed, and abuſes and evaſions will be prevented. It will then remain with the commiſſioners to determine whether they are ſatisfied; if they are not, I propoſe that they ſhould be enabled to require another ſpecification; I propoſe alſo to allow individuals to ſtate in what they have been ſurcharged: When the day arrives for that examination, I ſhould ſuggeſt that an opportunity ſhould be afforded to the Commiſſioners to hear the Surveyors of the taxes, or other officers appointed, upon the grounds of doubts which they may have tranſmitted to the Commiſſioners; to hear alſo any information from the party concerned; to receive any amendment he may think proper to offer; and to examine ſuch individuals as the Commiſſioners ſhall think fit. But if they are not ſatisfied with the ſchedule delivered in, I ſhould propoſe that they ſhould have in that caſe the power to proceed to examinations by oath, but that there ſhould be no compulſory power in them to make a man anſwer; that there ſhould neither be any authority in them to call for books, or to examine any man's clerks or agents. If, however, the party withholds any information on theſe points, it ſhall reſt with the Commiſſioners to form any other opinion, and their judgment ſhall be final, unleſs the party chuſes to appeal to the higher order of Commiſſioners. But even in that caſe I ſhould ſuggeſt that no books or papers ſhould be examined; but that if the party is unwilling to produce thoſe papers, he muſt acquieſce in the deciſion which the Commiſſioners ſhall come to upon ſuch other information as it may be in their power to obtain. I ſhould propoſe further, Sir, that no ſurcharge ſhould be taken off, unleſs the parties make a full diſcloſure

cloſure to the ſatisfaction of the Commiſſioners.

This, I am perfectly ready to admit gives to the Commiſſioners conſiderable power. But I think, Sir, I have ſtated enough to ſhew to the Committee, that unleſs ſome ſuch power be afforded under this act, the real and ſubſtantial effect of the meaſure will be entirely defeated. I think too I have proved, that Commiſſioners, ſelected in the manner I have deſcribed, are as likely to be as free from all undue influence, and to act with as much integrity and honour, as any other ſet of men whatever. If, however, a better mode ſhould be ſuggeſted, ſo far from oppoſing it, I ſhall conſider it as a melioration and improvement of my plan. With reſpect to the information which may be communicated to the Commiſſioners, I ſhould propoſe that they ſhould be ſtrictly ſworn not to diſcloſe ſuch informations, nor to avail themſelves of it for any other purpoſe ſeparate from the execution of the act. If any ſtatement however ſhould be made upon oath, which the Commiſſioners ſhall think to be falſe, and which they wiſh to bring to a trial, it muſt be obvious to the Committee that then there ought to be afforded the means of carrying on a proſecution for perjury. But on no other ground ſhould there be any diſcloſure of facts by the Commiſſioners, or any of the other officers appointed to carry the act into execution.

Perhaps, Sir, there is one claſs of men to whom it may be for the Committee to conſider whether the meaſure ſhall extend, and whether they ought not to remain exceptions to the act. Among the deſcriptions of perſons to whom it may remain for the Committee to conſider whether a diſcloſure would not be detrimental, is the claſs which includes the perſons engaged in retail trades, to whom the aſſeſſed tax bill of laſt ſeſſion gave great indulgencies, conſidering that the relief of abatement was one of which they could not avail themſelves, without greater inconvenience and injury to them, perhaps, than to perſons of higher rank, and of a higher deſcription of mercantile traders. I will, therefore, the Committee to conſider whether it may not be as well to leave that claſs to lay on the mitigated rate of aſſeſſment to which they are liable under the aſſeſſed tax bill, than to ſubject them to the general rate of the preſent bill. It will alſo naturally enter into the conſideration of the Committee, what allowances or exceptions ought to be extended to other deſcriptions of perſons. In the laſt act, certain allowances and abatements were granted to perſons with large families. That principle it will certainly be proper to extend to this meaſure; and the only doubt which I entertain upon the ſubject is, whether it was carried far enough in the laſt of laſt year. If this ſuggeſtion be admitted, it will naturally be a matter of doubt, whether the principle in the laſt bill, with reſpect to perſons having no families, ought not to be extended. It will alſo very readily occur to the minds of the Committee, that it is of the utmoſt importance to the due execution of the act, that, as far as the general principles can be laid down for eſtabliſhing a rate of landed property, or what may be the proper average of incomes which are ſubject to any rate, that the rates in the laſt act ſhould be ſubject to correction and improvement. By the operation of all theſe powers, and by the influence of theſe rules, we may expect to arrive more nearly at that fair proportion which each man ought to contribute towards the exigencies and for the ſervice of the country. The next conſideration to which I wiſh to direct the attention of the Committee, is one liable to more difficulty and doubt, upon which gentlemen will be aware that every thing muſt be conjectural, but on which we are ſtill not without lights to guide us; I mean as to the probable amount of a tax of this kind. The Committee muſt be convinced that what I ſhall ſtate will be with doubt and uncertainty. I ſhall, however, ſubmit to the view of the Houſe the information I have collected, the authorities with which I am fortified, and the grounds upon which I proceed. And, firſt, Sir, I ſhall proceed to ſtate what is the firſt great object of income.

HEADS OF INCOME.

Landed Property.—I mean the property derived from land. Upon this point I have conſulted the beſt opinions, and authors of the moſt acknowledged merit. Upon the ſubject of the rent of the land of this country, Sir William Petty is the earlieſt author whom I have conſulted, but upon whom I ſhall not

not dwell much. At the time he wrote, the rent of the land was ſtated at eight millions. In a ſubſequent period, in the beginning of this century, and in the reign of Queen Anne, two writers of credit, Davenant and King, repreſented the rent of the land to be 14,000,000l. However they differed on other points, on this they both agreed. Poſterior to that time it was a received opinion, that a land tax of four ſhillings in the pound was equivalent to about two ſhillings of what would be collected on the real rents of the kingdom, which were ſtated to amount to 20 millions. Full twenty years ago this was ſaid by a writer, who was alſo a member of that Houſe, and who, in a work he wrote, expreſsly recommended the very principle which I have ſubmitted to the Committee this day. The ſame eſtimate was ſtated, and the ſame opinion was countenanced by the authority of the celebrated author of the treatiſe on the Wealth of Nations, Adam Smith. He received that ſtatement generally admitted, and fuſficiently proved, that the rent of the land in the kingdom was twenty millions yearly. In a work publiſhed ſo long ago as the year 1771, Mr Arthur Young, who had made agriculture his ſtudy, has adopted the ſame opinion. I mention all theſe authorities, to ſhew what has been the amount of the rent of land at different periods. I ſtate them alſo to ſhew how great has been the increaſe upon it within the laſt ten years; but if any of theſe authorities ſhould ſtill not be free from exaggeration, the Committee will at leaſt ſee that any eſtimate which I may make is not likely to be one which is much beyond probability. I have had alſo, Sir, the advantage of other inquiries, made expreſsly by a body who have made the cultivation of the land their peculiar province—I mean the Board of Agriculture. I allude more particularly to one report publiſhed by a perſon who made this part of the ſubject his ſtudy, the report drawn up by Mr Middleton. All theſe, checked with other examinations, ſtate the whole of the cultivated land of the country to amount to little leſs than forty millions of acres. Any attempt to ſtate what is the average value of theſe forty millions of acres, muſt be, the Committee will ſee, in its nature extremely uncertain. As far as the inquiries I have made have enabled me to obtain any information, I find that many perſons, moſt converſant upon the ſubject, believe the average value to be fifteen ſhillings per acre. I ſhall however take it at no more than twelve ſhillings and ſixpence. In doing this, perhaps, I am rather under the mark, but I will put the average value at twelve millions a year.

And gentlemen furely will ſee, that when I take the number of acres at 40,000,000, and the average value at only 12s. 6d. per acre, the reſult is only an increaſe of five millions beyond what it was twenty years ago, and that therefore I cannot be conſidered as a very ſanguine calculator. However, on this part of the ſubject, I deſire the Committee to bear in mind that it will be proper to propoſe a reduction for all under 60l. a year, and that the ſame modifications be admitted into this act as in the aſſeſſed tax bill; I mean the ſcale of perſons engaged in mercantile concerns; a claſs whoſe gains are moſt precarious, whoſe credit may be moſt doubtful, and moſt injured by a diſcloſure of income from 60l. to 200l. a-year, and riſing from a hundred and twentieth part to a tenth. I mean on this account to aſſume a deduction of one fifth, and to ſtate the taxable property at only 20 millions. I ſhall next proceed to ſtate that part of income from land which belongs to the tenant. I propoſe to value every man according to his rent, making only a deduction for repairs. What I ſhall ſuggeſt for the further conſideration of the Committee is three-fourths of the rack rent which the tenant pays to the landlord. The value of the income from land which belongs to the tenant I take at 19 millions; the income to the landlord, as I have before ſaid, at 25 millions. Inſtead of deducting only one-fifth as I have ſuggeſted with reſpect to the landlord, I ſhall propoſe, with reſpect to the tenant, to deduct two thirds, leaving five millions as the taxable property of the tenants. The next income ariſing from land, is on income which is received neither by the landlord nor by the tenant; I mean what is received from tithes. This is an income enjoyed, as the Committee know, either by lay improvements, or by the clergy. The ſtatements of the amount

amount of the tithes are different; but I eſtimate the value of them to be five millions. If gentlemen ſuppoſe the amount of the cultivated land in the country to be 40 millions of acres, and average value to be 25 millions, they will find, I believe, my valuation to be very moderate. It is alſo Mr Arthur Young's ſtatement. Upon this ſubject of tithes, I propoſe to allow a deduction of one fifth, though perhaps I may be conſidered as ſtating the reduction too largely; but gentlemen will conſider the allowance to be made for poor livings.

Mines, Canals, and Timber.—Another ſpecies of property is that which ariſes from mines, and from ſhares in canals. There is alſo another property which I have not included in the rents of land, I mean the property ariſing from the ſale of timber. I take all theſe three, the mines, canals, and timber, at three millions.

Houſes.—Another ſpecies of rent is that received for houſes. I propoſe to proceed upon the rate which was followed laſt ſeſſion. The Committee are aware, that to eſtabliſh accurately the rent of houſes has ever been found to be impracticable, particularly of houſes of the higher deſcription of rent, which have always been undervalued. Out of the number of 700,000 houſes, 250,000 are calculated to pay the aſſeſſed taxes: I ſhall therefore take the rent of houſes at no more than ſix millions.

Profeſſions.—In the early eſtimates to which I have alluded, the profits gained by the profeſſion of the law alone are ſtated at one million and a half; I cannot ſuppoſe that they are at all diminiſhed. Allowing, beſides, for all the branches of the medical profeſſion, I conceive that two millions is a very ſmall ſum as the amount of the incomes ariſing from theſe profeſſions.

Retail Trade.—The next head of income relates to the profits of retail trade: But there are perſons of a certain deſcription with reſpect to whom it will be neceſſary to make ſome allowance. The reduction I ſhall propoſe to take at one eighth of the neſt ſum of the profits of the trade of Great Britain, after which there will remain a ſum of 5,000,000l. applicable to the general operation of the tax.

Iriſh Abſentees and Weſt Indies.—There will then remain another article of taxation, which is the income ſpent in this country by perſons who ſerve it, from other parts of the world; and unqueſtionably all who reſide in this kingdom, and draw their means from reſources out of it, cannot be diſſatisfied at contributing to their own ſupport and protection. Of this deſcription the only perſons I ſhall think it neceſſary to eſtimate are thoſe whoſe incomes ariſe from their having property in Ireland, and who reſide in this country, and perſons owning eſtates in the Weſt Indies, or receiving the intereſt of mortgages on eſtates in that part of the world. With reſpect to thoſe perſons whoſe income ariſe from Ireland, I have no accurate data in order to eſtimate the amount; but I believe it is the generally received opinion, that the property of perſons of this deſcription amounted to at leaſt 1,000,000l. a conſiderable time ſince, and now, from the increaſe of rents, it may reaſonably be eſtimated far beyond that ſum. With reſpect to the incomes of eſtates in the Weſt Indies, the total amount cannot be eſtimated at leſs than 7,000,000l. ſterling, and far the greater amount is produced from the property of perſons reſiding in Great Britain, who either own eſtates, or have mortgages upon them from which they receive intereſt. From that are to be deducted the amount of the exports carried out, and the charge of cultivating the eſtates in the Weſt Indies; after which deduction, I eſtimate the produce of income in the Weſt Indies at four millions, and I believe I run no danger of ſtating it too high. Thus it appears, I may fairly eſtimate at five millions, the whole produce of income ariſing beyond ſeas, and enjoyed by perſons in this country.

Perſonal Property.—I next come to the income ariſing from perſonal eſtates, or from the capital employed in trade, which in ſome is poſſeſſed in a greater degree than by others. With reſpect to perſons of this deſcription, public or private, there can be no difference; and with reſpect to thoſe whoſe incomes ariſe from mortgages, I can ſtate no ſeparate ſum; for whatever intereſt is received by individuals, on the ſecurity of eſtates, is included in the general eſtimate of 25,000,000l.

Funds.—On one ſpecies of income there will be no difference of opinion;

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I mean that arising from capital veſted in the public funds. When any diſcuſſion has taken place, in conſequence of any notion looſely thrown out, that a tax of the public funds would be adopted, no man was ever more prepared with his determined oppoſition than myſelf; and on this plain, ſimple, and decided ground, that to propoſe a tax, operating excluſively on that deſcription of income, the profits of a capital borrowed by Government, would be a breach of that ſanction under which it was lent.—That to make the perſons who had lent it indirectly the ſubject of a tax, when other ſpecies of property were allowed to eſcape, would be inconſiſtent with that good faith which Government had held forth as the inducement to individuals to repoſe confidence in its meaſures, and to rely that the money they had embarked for the ſervice of the public ſhould not be diminiſhed by partial taxation. But at a time like the preſent, when a tax is raiſing on every ſpecies of capital, on landed eſtates, on mortgage, money embarked in adventures of trade, or in any other way whatever, in which men withdrawing their money from the public funds could apply it, in ſuch caſe the man of funded property can have no objection to a tax on the ſame terms with others. We have the ſame right to object to any defalcation of our property, as he has to object to a diminution of what the Government promiſed to ſecure him. I mention this, not becauſe I think it requires an argument, but becauſe I think it is important to ſtate, that the principle of taking the public funds in the way now propoſed, is diſtinct and independent of all thoſe ideas of a ſeparate tax, which with juſtice would come under the deſcription of an excluſive reſumption of that which the public had agreed to pay. Having ſaid this, I have only to ſtate the amount of the intereſt of the public funds, after a deduction which I make with great ſatisfaction, as though it is one which nominally falls as a charge on the public, is in fact an object of great reſource, I mean that proportion of dividends which is appropriated to commiſſioners, and conſtitutes a part of the ſinking fund. This deduction is firſt the original 1,000,000l. granted to the commiſſioners, the amount of 1 per cent. which makes 2,000,000l. more, and the value of the dividends of the ſtock already purchaſed, which is near another million. Here, as in landed property, a part was to be deducted for that income under 60l. which would pay nothing, and the income under two hundred, which would only pay a ſmall portion. This part I ſhall eſtimate at one-fifth, and the ſum which will remain, after deducting it, will be twelve millions.

Foreign Trade.—Another ſpecies of property, on the firſt view, appears more than any other incapable of taxation, and which I muſt, in many reſpects, leave to be judged of by the experiment, I mean the profits of trade. Certainly as to many branches of this kind of income, there are conſiderable difficulties; but this conſideration renders the probability of a tax upon the produce of trade bring in the greateſt degree productive; it is, that our trade has become great and flouriſhing. We have, by circumſtances partly accidental, derived peculiarly the means of availing ourſelves of a tax on a part of our trade which has increaſed to a pitch till lately unknown—I mean our foreign trade. We have had laid before us an account of the exports and imports, the amount of which not reſting on looſe eſtimates, formed, as in earlier periods they had uſed to be, arbitrarily and capriciouſly, but corrected by minute inquiry made in the courſe of the year, and information obtained from that ſource to which I have alluded to in what I have ſtated to the committee—I mean the declaration of parties under the tax on exports and imports paſſed laſt year; and we find they are now much larger than they were ever before eſtimated at. Beſides this criterion, we have another way at the amount of the exports and imports, which is by the tax impoſed on property inſured; and it appears from a review of this tax, that for the laſt two years, ſince which time the tax has had complete operation, that the total amount of exports and imports is not leſs than eighty millions Sterling, that is, of articles inſured. This amount, by a compariſon with the ſum aſcertained by the tax on exports and imports, nearly correſponds. There is, however, one circumſtance which may induce a ſuppoſition that this

this eſtimate is under-rated, which is, the conſiderable foreign trade carried on by parties who adventure on their own riſk. But eſtimate the whole at 80,000,000l. The next article on which I propoſe the tax to operate, is the profit derived from this capital; in eſtimating which we are to conſider, not merely the profit of thoſe who buy and ſell; not merely the profit of the manufacturer who ſells to the merchant, or the merchant who ſells on his own account; but the profit of thoſe who export on account of others. By this I allude to the indirect and collateral profits of brokers, and other incidental profits that belong to that mode of carrying on trade. It was on this branch of profit I reſted my opinion, when I ſuppoſed the profits of trade were no leſs, on an average, than 15 per cent. If we obſerve how many branches there are, how many perſons there are that make their profit of articles of trade, it is not to be ſuppoſed that the income on this ſpecies of property can be leſs than 12,000,000l.

Scotland.—Having ſtated theſe ſources of income in England, I ſhall next turn my attention to Scotland, the income from which I ſhall conſider as equal only to an eighth of the ſum to be derived from the ſame ſource here. I ſhall therefore only ſet down five millions; though in my eſtimation of the growing proſperity of that country, too ſmall a proportion.

Home Trade.—There then remains a ſpecies of income which much more baffles conjecture: I mean the profits of the whole of the domeſtic trade of the country. When we conſider how diverſified this head of income is, how many make a profit of different articles from the raw material to the laſt ſtage of finiſhed manufacture—what profits are made not only by the retail trader, but by thoſe in a higher and more opulent line;—when we conſider all theſe, it is difficult to form any perfect eſtimate; but in forming the leading feature of the tax, I have ſtated, that the general capital employed in exports and imports is ſuppoſed to be 80,000,000l. ſterling; of theſe, the exports of Britiſh manufacture alone, reſulting from the increaſe of our trade, fall not ſhort of 30,000,000l. ſterling. With reſpect to this head, I may reaſonably eſtimate it at a ſum not leſs than 18,000,000l.

There may be other branches of income which I have not particularized, but I only wiſh to ſtate the general ſources of the wealth of the country. I ſhall for the convenience of the Committee, enumerate the different articles making up this amount.

The Land rental then, after deducting one fifth, eſtimated at L.	20,000,000
The Tenant's rental of Land, deducting two thirds of the rack rent, I take at - -	6,000,000
The amount of Tithes, deducting one fifth -	4,000,000
The produce of Mines, Canal Navigation, &c. deducting one fifth	3,000,000
The rental of Houſes, deducting one fifth -	5,000,000
The profits of Profeſſions	2,000,000
The rental of Scotland, taking it at one eighth of that of England -	5,000,000
The income of perſons reſident in Great Britain, drawn from profeſſions beyond ſeas -	5,000,000
The amount of Annuities from the public funds, after deducting one fifth for exemptions and modifications -	12,000,000
The profits on the capital employed in our foreign commerce -	12,000,000
The profits on the capital employed in domeſtic trade, and the profits of ſkill and induſtry -	28,000,000
Total	102,000,000

Upon this ſum a tax of 10 per cent. is likely to produce 10,000,000l. a-year, and this is the ſum which is likely to reſult from the meaſure, and at which I ſhall aſſume it. I flatter myſelf that I have been extremely careful not to overſtate any part of the ſources. By the preſent meaſure no perſon will be charged more than a tenth of his income; it will therefore be no additional tax upon thoſe perſons who faithfully met the views of Parliament in the aſſeſſed taxes; but it will be a relief to thoſe who, in their zeal for the public ſervice, outran the voice of Parliament, and by their voluntary contributions, exceeded the ſum that was

called for by the tax. On the other ſide, the preſent meaſure will draw forth from thoſe perſons who ought to have paid a tenth of their income, the ſums which it was their duty to pay, and which, in many inſtances, I am ſorry to ſay, have been ſhamefully evaded. There are two or three conſiderations, upon which I ſhall juſt detain you a moment, upon this part of the plan. I ſhall propoſe it to commence upon the 5th of April next; and of courſe ſhall propoſe, that the aſſeſſed taxes ſhall be repealed at the ſame period.

I truſt it will not be neceſſary for me to go into any detail of argument to convince the Committee of the advantages of the beneficial mode adopted laſt ſeſſion, of raiſing a conſiderable part of the ſupplies within the year. The propriety of the meaſure has been recogniſed, and felt in a way the moſt gratifying to the feelings and to the pride of every Engliſhman. The principle has been proved to be the moſt wiſe and beneficial, though in the manner of carrying it into practice it has been ſo ſhamefully and groſsly evaded. The experience which we have had points out the propriety of correcting the errors of that plan, and of enforcing and extending the principle. If we have been able, from the benefits of that meaſure, ſo evaded and crippled, to do ſo much, it is obviouſly our duty to ſeek for the means of perfecting the plan on which we are ſet out; and if we can find regulations and checks againſt the abuſes that have been committed, it is ſurely wiſe and proper that they ſhould be made to apply to a more general and extenſive ſcheme than that which we have already tried. It no longer reſts upon theory, or upon reaſoning; it is recommended to us by the ſure teſt of experience; and if, by the efficacy of this plan, we have been able to diſappoint the hopes of the enemy; to riſe above all the attempts which they made to diſturb our domeſtic tranquillity; to remove the apprehenſions of the deſponding; and to ſhew them that all their fears of our being unable to continue the conteſt were vain; to aſſert the high and proud diſtinction which we took in the maintenance of genuine government and ſocial order; if we have been able thereby to animate the public ſpirit of Europe, to revive its diſmayed energy, and to give a turn to the political aſpect of the world, favourable to the cauſe of humanity, ſhall we not perſevere in a courſe which has been ſo fruitful of good? If we have proved that, at the end of the ſixth year of war, unſubdued by all the exertions and ſacrifices we have made—our commerce is flouriſhing beyond the example of any year even of peace; if our revenues are undiminiſhed; if new means of vigour are daily preſenting themſelves to our graſp; if our efforts have been crowned with the moſt perfect ſucceſs; if the public ſentiment be firm and united in the juſtice and neceſſity of the cauſe in which we are embarked; if every motive to exertion continues the ſame, and every effort we have made in the cauſe is a ſource only of exultation and pride to the heart; if by the efficacy of thoſe efforts, we have now the juſt expectation of accompliſhing the great object of all our ſacrifices and all our labours; if deſpondency be diſſipated at home, and confidence created abroad, ſhall we not perſevere in a courſe ſo fairly calculated to bring us to a happy iſſue? Let us do juſtice to ourſelves. It is not merely owing to the dazzling events of the campaign that we are entirely indebted for the proud ſtation in which we now ſtand. Great and glorious as thoſe atchievements have been, which cannot fail to be a ſource of exultation to every Britiſh boſom, I ſhall not detract from the high renown and grandeur of all thoſe perſons to whoſe ſkill, vigour, and determination, we are indebted for the atchievements that have aſtoniſhed and arouſed Europe, when I ſay, that it is not altogether owing to them that we now feel ourſelves in a ſituation ſo proud and conſoling.

If the world ſhall not be diſpoſed to take the benefit of this example, Great Britain has at leaſt the conſolation to know, that ſhe has given them the power.—And if I were diſpoſed, Sir, to pay regard to the dearer and colder maxims of policy, I ſhould ſay, that every regard even to prudent œconomy would point out the courſe which we have taken as the moſt advantageous for a people to purſue. It will be manifeſt to every gentleman, on the ſlighteſt conſideration of the ſubject, that in the end the meaſure of

raiſing

raiſing the ſupplies within the year is the cheapeſt and moſt ſalutary courſe that a wiſe people can purſue; and when it is conſidered that there is a ſaving of at leaſt one-twelfth upon all that is raiſed, gentlemen will not ſuffer a ſuperſtitious fear, and jealouſy of the danger of expoſing the ſecrecy of income, to combat with a meaſure that is ſo pregnant with benefits to the nation. If gentlemen will take into their conſideration the probable duration of peace and war, calculated from the experience of paſt times, they will be convinced of the immeaſurable importance of ſtriving to raiſe the ſupplies within the year, rather than accumulating a permanent debt. The experience of the laſt hundred, fifty, or forty years, will ſhew how little confidence we can have in the duration of peace, and it ought to convince us, how important it is to eſtabliſh a ſyſtem, that ſhall prepare us for every emergency, give ſtability to ſtrength, and perpetual renovation to reſource. I think, I could make it apparent to gentlemen, that in any war, of the duration of ſix years, the plan of funding all the expences to be incurred in carrying it on, would leave at the end of it a greater burden permanently upon the nation than would be ſuſtained, than they would have to incur for the ſix years only of its continuance, and one year beyond it, provided that they made a ſacrifice of a tenth of their income. In the old, unwiſe, and deſtructive way of raiſing the ſupplies by a permanent fund, without any proviſion for its redemption, a war ſo carried on entails the burden upon the age and upon their poſterity for ever. This had, to be ſure, in a great meaſure, been done away and corrected, by the ſalutary and valuable ſyſtem they had adopted of the redemption fund. But that fund cannot accompliſh the end in a ſhorter period than forty years, and during all that time, the expences of a war ſo funded muſt weigh down and preſs upon the people. If, on the contrary, it had, at an early part of our hiſtory, been reſolved to adopt the preſent mode of raiſing the ſupplies within the year, if, for inſtance, after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, the ſcheme of redemption even had been adopted, and perſevered in to this time, we ſhould not now, for the ſeventh year of the war, have had more to raiſe from the pockets of the people than what we have now to pay of permanent taxes, together with about a fourth of what it would be neceſſary to lay on in addition for this year. Fortunately we have at length eſtabliſhed the redemption fund; the benefits of it are already felt; they will every year be more and more acknowledged; and in addition to his it is only neceſſary, that inſtead of conſulting a preſent advantage, and throwing the burden, as heretofore, upon poſterity, we ſhall fairly meet it ourſelves, and lay the foundation of a ſyſtem that ſhall make us independent of all the future events of the world.—I am ſure that, in deliberating upon the advantages of this ſyſtem, gentlemen, whoſe liberal and exalted views go beyond the mere preſent convenience of the moment, and are not limited to the period of the intereſt they may themſelves take in public affairs, or even to the period of their own exiſtence, but who look with a provident affection to the independence and happineſs of generations unborn, will feel and recognize the wiſdom of a ſyſtem that has for its principle the permanency of Britiſh grandeur. You will feel that it is not only to the ſplendour of your arms, to the atchievements of your fleets, that you are indebted for the high diſtinction which you at preſent enjoy; but alſo to the wiſdom of the Councils you have adopted in taking advantage of the influence which your happy conſtitution confers beyond the example of any other people, and by which you have given a grand and edifying leſſon to diſmayed Europe, that ſafety, honour, and repoſe muſt ever depend on the energy with which danger is met and reſiſted. You have ſhewn the power of ſelf-defence, which is permanent and unaſſailable; if ending upon the principles you have aſſumed, the wild and extravagant hopes of the enemy will be thwarted; Europe will be arouſed and animated to adopt a courſe ſo honourable; and ſurely, with the means of perſevering, thus obvious, you will not think it prudent or neceſſary to ſhrink from the principles you have adopted, or take ſhelter in a peace which might be obtained by a more temporiſing conduct, but which would be neither ſafe nor durable. But, Sir, I cannot encourage any ſentiment ſo de-

degrading; I feel in common with every gentleman who now hears me the proud ſituation in which we have been placed, and the importance it has given us in the ſcale of nations. The rank that we now hold, I truſt, we ſhall continue to cheriſh, and that, purſuing the ſame glorious courſe, we ſhall all of us feel it to be a ſource of pride and conſolation that we are the ſubjects of the King of Great Britain. I will not detain you longer, Sir, but will move for the firſt of my ſeries of reſolutions, in carrying the plan of taxation into execution which I have endeavoured to detail.

Mr Tierney began by remarking, that after the very eloquent concluſion of the ſpeech of the right hon. gentleman, the Houſe would hardly be diſpoſed to expect that he could offer them any thing worth their hearing; and he would aſſure them that he roſe from no forward deſire of obtruding himſelf upon their attention; ſo far from it, that he felt it an irkſome taſk for him to riſe after ſuch an animated addreſs as had been made to their paſſions; but a ſenſe of duty impelled him. He had underſtood that the right hon. gentleman was to have confined himſelf that evening to the propoſed tax upon income, and that he would not have entered upon ſuch a large field of financial and political matters. He had come down to the Houſe entirely unprepared to enter into the various topics which had been introduced into that ſpeech; but, notwithſtanding, there were ſome points upon which he could not avoid animadverting. With reſpect to the amount of the ſupplies wanted for the enſuing year, he knew not whether the Houſe was to enjoy the peculiar facility of having but one budget for the year, or what dependence was to be placed upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer in this reſpect; but, at any rate, he could not help remarking, that even in this early budget, the ſupplies exceeded, by two millions, what had been voted the preceding ſeſſion. If the hon. gentleman ſhould encourage the Houſe to expect no other budget, upon the ground of his having had more accurate information of the income and expenditure than upon ſome former occaſions, he muſt ſay, that this was not the only promiſe of the kind which he had made, and in which he afterwards failed. He would hope, however, the Houſe and the public were now made acquainted with the extent of the burdens for the enſuing year. When the Chancellor of the Exchequer had introduced his plan of aſſeſſed taxes, he had argued that he meant nothing like a diſcloſure of circumſtances, and had even ſaid that it were better the whole ſcheme ſhould be abandoned than that ſuch a principle be introduced. But now, in order to carry his ſcheme into effect, ſuch a diſcloſure is made neceſſary. In the laſt year the right hon. gentleman would not have ventured to have made ſuch a propoſal, but having got the Houſe in ſome degree to adopt his plan, the right hon. gentleman now proceeded, and puſhed it to the extent of a diſcloſure of circumſtances—moſt dangerous to attempt in a commercial country! Under what circumſtances would perſons have the option of avoiding this diſcloſure? Not without expoſing themſelves to the penalty which commiſſioners under the act might chuſe to inflict; and theſe commiſſioners were to receive their information from a ſurveyor, or a kind of government ſpy; and they were alſo, at their direction, to aſſeſs what ſhould be the payment of the merchant, unleſs he diſcloſes his affairs. If the Houſe ſhould now agree to this principle of a partial diſcloſure, and if the tax now propoſed ſhould prove as defective as the former one, then the univerſal diſcloſure of every man's property would become the theme of next year. When he conſidered the preſent ſpirit of the people, Mr Tierney ſaid, he could not help thinking ſuch deſperate meaſures were unneceſſary; nor could he, on any account, accede to a ſyſtem which, in his apprehenſion, was founded on a principle of indiſcriminate rapine. A tax upon income was of all unequal things the moſt unequal. Did the right hon. gentleman mean to ſay, that a man having a life eſtate was to be put in the ſame rank with him who had a freehold of the like value, or that of a widow, whoſe ſole livelihood conſiſted of an income from the funds, was in a ſituation ſimilar to that of a gentleman who had property in the funds, and could apply it to his advantage in various other concerns? But the Chancellor of the Exchequer ſeemed aware

that

that there were degrees of injuſtice in his plan, whilſt he ſtyled that of bad meaſures this plan of his was the beſt. It was a plan which, he would be bold to ſay, ſacrificed the domeſtic comforts of the moſt reſpectable part of the Britiſh community; and if he went on in this career of taxation, there was no knowing what would be the next ſacrifice he would require. There was a deſcription of property on which this tax would not fall in an equal proportion; he referred to the leading ſtockholders of the city of London, whoſe patriotiſm the Chancellor of the Exchequer had ſo highly commended. If theſe gentlemen had ſtudied how they ſhould propoſe a tax that would fall lightly on themſelves, they could not have fallen upon a more ingenious expedient. If a tenth part was taken from the ſmall annuitant, he would pay in a proportion much larger than the opulent merchant. He could not conceive how a more ingenious device could be adopted to make one ſet of perſons pay for the emoluments of another. There was alſo another great objection to the ſyſtem on which the Chancellor of the Exchequer was now proceeding, inaſmuch as it would make the property of England to ſhift hands. This, indeed, might be thought of no great moment, provided the revenue was profited; but in a political view it was attended with ſome danger—the ſhifting of property in a ſhort period of years. The rich man in the city might, with his ſuperfluity of wealth, buy eſtates, but the country would loſe much if gentlemen of landed property were obliged to ſell their eſtates. This was a point which he wiſhed gentleman would maturely conſider. When the people of England were called to pay (as the right hon. gentleman expreſſed it) the ſalvage of their own ſecurity, they had a right to expect that they were not to embark their property to redeem the honour of Europe. When he ſaw the people reduced to the ſtate in which they now were, and when they were told that this was not a war for the maintenance of their own rights and liberties, but for the frantic purpoſe of reſcuing the honour of Europe, he, for one, muſt enter his oppoſition againſt any ſuch doctrine. As to whatever could tend to maintain the honour, ſecurity, and integrity of the Britiſh empire, the right hon. gentleman and the Houſe would uniformly find him ſupporting ſuch an object. It was upon this ground he ſupported the navy eſtimates; but as to the army eſtimates, he ſaw in them ſeveral matters which he could not conſcientiouſly vote for. But although adopted, he would ſtill hope that Miniſters had nothing more in contemplation than the ſecurity of England; he could hardly think any Miniſter would dare to order a ſingle man to leave this country on diſtant expeditions, or for the ſupport of others, whilſt the Britiſh empire was at preſent in ſuch a ſtate that the militia of England were obliged to be ſtationed in Ireland. When our own ſtrength had been weakened, he truſted no viſionary foreign expeditions would be attempted. When the clauſes were brought up, it was his intention to ſtate his objections more in detail; but at preſent he wiſhed to ſhew that he, for one, was not a convert to the principles of the right hon. miniſter, nor was he deterred by his eloquence from oppoſing his pernicious plan of taxation.

The report was ordered to be received to-morrow.

The other orders of the day were then read and diſpoſed of.—Adjourned.

4. *Mr W. Dundas* moved the ſecond reading of the Scotch ſmall note bill. The bill was accordingly read, and committed for Thurſday.

Dec. 7. The bill to enable his Majeſty to accept the ſervices of the militia who ſhould voluntarily offer to ſerve in Ireland, was brought in, and read a firſt time.

The Houſe in a Committee went through the Scotch ſmall note bill.

In a Committee upon the Engliſh ſmall note bill, notes under 20*s.* were to be called in by the 1ſt February, and the duration of the bill if it ſhould be extended to the 1ſt of May.—Adjourned.

Dec. 10. *Mr Pitt*, in a Committee of Ways and Means, moved that the ſum of three millions be granted to his Majeſty for the ſupply of the enſuing year. He ſtated the terms of the loan for three millions to be 99*l.* 15*s.* 8½*d.* for every 100*l.* according to the then current price. The ſubſcribers came forward in a patriotic manner, at the riſk of being loſers, but he had the ſatisfaction to learn, that ſuch was the ſtate of credit,

credit, that the loan on this day carried 2l. per cent. premium. The remaining 14,000,000l. he thought might be borrowed with more advantage to the public at a future period.

The Scotch ſmall note bill was read a third time, paſſed, and ordered to the Lords.

Negociation.

Dec. 11. *Mr Tierney* roſe, he ſaid, conformable to that notice which he had given, in which he had intimated his intention of moving, "That it was incumbent, as a duty on his Majeſty's Miniſters, to adviſe his Majeſty not to enter into any alliance with foreign powers that may hinder his Majeſty from negociating a peace with France, whenever ſhe may be diſpoſed to enter on a fair and equitable negociation." Impreſſed with the arduouſneſs of the taſk he had undertaken, actuated by no individual intereſts, and guided ſolely by the public good, he would endeavour to diſcharge a conſcientious duty. Whatever credit his Majeſty's Miniſters may take to themſelves for availing themſelves of what they termed the ſpirit of Europe, in their new project, he for one would enter his proteſt againſt it. As no direct motion had been made on this ſubject, the Houſe, he hoped, would indulge him in ſtating the reaſons which led to his objections; and if thoſe objections are well founded, they will do him the juſtice then to acknowledge, that he had been actuated by no party views, or impelled by no ungenerous motives, in bringing forward his motion: It may be ſtated, as one objection to his motion, that it is an interference with his Majeſty's prerogative, with the Executive Power of the Crown, where the right of making war and peace is placed. His motion did not infringe that right any more than his right of moving that ſuch and ſuch ſupplies ſhould not be applied to ſuch and ſuch purpoſes; and no gentleman would deny him that right, any more than he would deny his right of refuſing the ſupplies altogether. Another objection he would anticipate, that it would be objected to him that his motion had a tendency to throw a damp on that general ſpirit that had ariſen againſt the common enemy of Europe, and encourage the ſpirit of the Directory. He wiſhed ſincerely that it was in his power to excite that ſpirit, or any ſpirit that would damp the ſpirit of the French Directory. But he doubted whether any ſuch ſpirit exiſted in Europe, but wiſhed, if there did, that it exiſted in principle.

On examining the powers of Europe, he ſaw no ſuch guiding principle. He did not even diſcover the diſunion of thoſe powers from the French Republic in the different ſtates of Europe. He ſaw the French Miniſter, even at this hour, in Pruſſia, and cordially received at Court. He ſaw the Emperor now two years at peace, and a Congreſs ſitting at Raſtadt for the termination of all differences, each party endeavouring to make the beſt bargain, and minutely adjuſting, even to a few inches, the boundaries of the right and left ſide of a river. He ſaw no principle of reſiſtance or ſpirit in Turkey. None in Ruſſia. In profeſſions, from the commencement of the war, none more large; in exertions, none more remote. The Ottoman Porte, ſo far from poſſeſſing principle or ſpirit, had tamely looked on, till it felt a ſudden reſentment from invaſion. She did not reſiſt till ſhe felt the preſſure of French principles in their actual hoſtilities. He was ready to admit that it would be of advantage, if it could be ſhewn that a confederacy did exiſt, and that that confederacy would effect the deliverance of Europe. Such a confederacy, unleſs general, can be of no ſervice. The confederacy of a few Princes, whoſe object cannot even be defined, can effect nothing. The living example is ſtill freſh in our memories, the diſaſters and miſconduct ſtill before our eyes. That great confederacy attacked France when ſhe had no ſettled form of government, when ſhe was embroiled and diſmembered by factions and civil war; when ſhe had nothing to oppoſe it but new-raiſed levies and raw recruits; when her frontiers were weak, unguarded, and unfortified, and when all the powers of Europe preſſed on her from every quarter at once; when, under theſe mighty diſadvantages ſhe had withſtood and repelled the attack, what hopes now, when her preſent ſituation, extent and boundaries, were compared to her former ſtate? Circumſtances muſt moſt materially change before he could expect a new confederacy would produce the leaſt material effect. What diſſolved this confederacy? Shall

Shall I be told it was their military skill, their strong fortresses, their spirit, or the want of union in their common enemy? And shall I now be answered, that they have Generals of less skill, less strong holds, less spirit, or that the object of the new confederacy will be better defined, their alliances more closely cemented, and that they will better co-operate against France than formerly? Can it be for a moment believed that Austria will place more confidence in Prussia because she was the first to desert the confederacy, and abandon her to the distresses of her own struggle? Shall we grant more supplies to Austria, because she negociated a peace with France, after all our grants and loan, and even at the very moment she was receiving them? Will those on the left side of the Rhine more cordially co-operate with the Emperor, because in that peace he had abandoned them to the enemy, and made the best terms for himself? Will there subsist greater cordiality between Austria and Russia, because under her distresses she never received the least aid or succour from her? Or will the Ottoman Porte mingle her interests with those very powers whose interest and struggle is to tear and dismember her empire? Will any man in that House put his hand on his heart, and say that he can discern the interests of his country in such a confederacy.

He may be told that Europe has since had cause for renovated and just resentments against the common enemy. In answer, he would call them to mind what had been published in the manifestoes of 1792 and 1793. These manifestoes had then declared the calamitous events, and the combined powers of Europe had to guard against them, at a time when Europe was in a condition to resist the rapacity of the invaders. The combined powers were, notwithstanding, defeated and disjoined; the pernicious and fatal effects of French principles, since experienced, may be assigned as a new motive of confederacy. Gentlemen viewed those principles on various points: An attempt even to reform abuses had come under those various points; but he would always discriminate between French and really reforming principles. But principles to establish any thing like the tyranny of France should always meet with his most vigorous opposition. But are those principles now to excite and communicate an alarm to the powers of Europe? He could not believe, in his view of things, they are likely to produce any such effect. If the spectacle of a Monarch bleeding on the scaffold, the massacre of Nobility, the confiscation of their property, the overthrow of Church Establishments, did not produce an alarm sufficient to excite resentment, and cement the former confederacy against France, when united to their principles, it rested now with Gentlemen to shew what there is to sharpen the edge of this new confederacy forming against France. Can it be believed that such can succeed? In order to expect any degree of success, some definite object must be marked out. The most moderate of many I have heard is, that that would drive them back to their ancient limits. He always thought that France would not rely much on her professed principles, when she discovered an eagerness to exceed her ancient limits. She was now in possession of Mantua, of Luxembourg, of the strongest holds on the frontiers of her territory: and what great reliance could we have of the success of such an attempt?

The Right Hon. Gentleman (Mr Pitt) may object, that what was for the good and security of Europe is so connected with the interests of this country, that their interests are inseparable. On this point he would refer to the words which were put into his Majesty's mouth by his Ministers, after the negociation at Lille, and which are tantamount to his present motion. Mr Tierney here read these. He asked whether he was proposing any thing immoderate, leaving Ministers to interpret his motion as they pleased. He now called to mind two objections which may be stated: The first, the aggressions made on Venice and Switzerland. He was not an advocate for such aggressions on neutral powers; but how would they now be able to convince those who had taken in exchange those neutral territories, and given sanction to this attack on neutral powers, to refuse them, and recede from their newly acquired dominions? He can hardly think that the Right Hon. Gentleman himself can put great confidence in the loyalty of such allies-

ances. I need not ſtate to the Houſe what the Right Hon. Gentleman (Mr Pitt) had ſo eloquently deſcribed, the naval victories of our gallant Commanders. Is that, then, no co-operation, when the marine of France is deſtroyed and their commerce annihilated? The Right Hon. Gentleman has already diſplayed the ſplendour of thoſe victories by the power of his eloquence, expreſſive of ideas ſtronger than before he could conceive. This was the co-operation moſt magnanimous, and not loans and ſubſidies. He proteſted againſt them, though he did not wiſh that England ſhould puſillanimouſly withdraw herſelf from the war. Though England was deſerted by every ally, ſhe ſhould purſue with the ſame unabating ſpirit with which ſhe had ſet out. He would be the laſt man to damp that ſpirit, and his motion carries with it this qualification, that he ſhould co-operate cordially until an honourable peace could be procured. Another objection may ariſe, that my motion means nothing; but he thought he ſhould gain much if he could obtain for the country the expreſſions put into his Majeſty's mouth in 1797.

He hoped no man would ſay this motion was for peace. Between a puſillanimous application, and a ſteady, ſober line of conduct, there was a very wide difference. He preſented a view of England from 1797 to the preſent period. The retroſpect was gloomy. Our finances preſented themſelves to our view in a moſt alarming condition. War, by its eſtimates, coſt the country 30 millions a year; every month ſwoll it in two millions and a half. Six years war has added to the debt 150 millions, and created a neceſſity for raiſing 8 millions a year, a ſum equal to the whole exigencies of the country when his Majeſty aſcended the throne. He calculated our peace eſtabliſhment at 28, at leaſt 26 millions. At a former period, the Right Hon. Gentleman did not imagine that England could bear ſuch burdens; he did not imagine it could bear ſuch rigorous exactions. England is now a country where every man is called on for the tenth part of his property; a country where Commiſſioners are appointed to ſcrutinize and inſpect that property—the tranſfer of which, from the way we are now going on, is calculated to ſhew nothing but overgrown merchants and a beggared gentry.—We are called an armed nation; every third man is a ſoldier, taken from the cultivation of the land, or from the labours of the manufactories. The increaſe of power in the Crown is immenſe—laws are paſſed reducing the people to inſignificance and ſilence—the Habeas Corpus act in a ſtate of perpetual ſuſpenſion.—The people cannot weather this ſtorm.—On the affairs of Ireland he did not wiſh to dwell; it was a ſubject ſo arduous and delicate, that he would only juſt touch upon them. The rebellion, even his Majeſty's ſpeech did not go ſo far as to ſay was extinct—it was curbed and ſuppreſſed. The bill for renewing the militia act would not now be paſſed, if there was not a neceſſity for it. All the force that could raiſe, and that all England could ſend to it, was deemed only ſufficient to repreſs a rebellion, which was acknowledged only to be curbed and ſuppreſſed, but not ſubdued.—In the Eaſt Indies, views were rather unfavourable. The vaſt weight of the military eſtabliſhment, rendered ſo neceſſary of late, could not, under any change of circumſtances, be endured. The French expedition has not been defeated; it is under the conduct of one of the firſt Generals in Europe, who has eſtabliſhed his power without check or controul; and ſhould he turn his thoughts to India, the Right Hon Gentleman (Mr Pitt) would, he was well aſſured, tremble during his progreſs thither. It may in policy be now a queſtion of prudence, whether peace may not preclude every further evil to be expected from ſuch an enemy.

When he turned his eyes to the Weſt Indies, it preſented a calamitous event; he meant the evacuation of St Domingo. He did not hint the moſt diſtant reflection on that gallant officer who commanded, and who made the beſt uſe of his circumſtances that themſelves gave his ſituation. The ſurrender of the iſland was rendered the more calamitous, from a conſideration of the blood and treaſure that were laviſhed on its defence.—A ſum not leſs than ten millions, and, in the end, a grave for 10,000 Britiſh Soldiers; and poſſeſſed by a moſt alarming novelty in that quarter of the Empire, an army of 50,000 blacks,

blacks, diſciplined and armed, deſperate, and inflamed with an enthuſiaſtic ſpirit. Had he eloquence, he could heighten his colouring, without falſehood or exaggeration.—But, from the ſituation of England, we had enough to do at home. After a ſtruggle of ſix years in a common cauſe we ſhould look for the fruits of our exertions.—We ſhould at leaſt reſolve to re-aſſume our former ſtation, and ſhew that when France is diſpoſed to re-aſſume moderation, we are ready to meet her. But if Britain, by her endeavour to ſtir up the other powers, by ſending abroad either men or money, ſhe ſhould again miſcarry, a weight of expenditure would fall upon the nation that would be inſufferable. Her reſources are great as yet; ſhe ſhould moderate, not laviſh them. Peace would be a great bleſſing, indeed the only bleſſing for the nation; and even then, the eſtabliſhment will be ſo heavy that great difficulties muſt ariſe. Whenever that preſſure ariſes, it will be ſatisfactory to Miniſters to reflect, that it did not ariſe from any extravagant plans purſued in the moment of a raſh and miſguided ambition. He here apologiſed for treſſpaſſing on the attention of the Houſe ſo long, and thanked them for their indulgence and patience.

Mr Canning began by ſtating, that the Hon. Member who had juſt ſat down had adopted an extraordinary courſe, in bringing forward a motion in itſelf extraordinary When a member called for an unuſual exertion of the powers of that Houſe, it was rather to be expected that he ſhould begin by ſhewing its ground and its propriety, than by anticipating the objections which may afterwards ariſe. The Hon. Gentleman had certainly anticipated many, but not all of theſe objections. He ſhould endeavour, however, to follow him in the order he had choſen. There was, he muſt premiſe, a ſort of fatality attending theſe extraordinary motions, when the Houſe was called upon to ſet up its privileges againſt the prerogative of the Crown. He recollected but two inſtances in this century when ſuch motions had been carried, and of thoſe the former was ineffectual, and the latter unfortunate. The firſt was in the year 1707, when a vote paſſed in the Houſe of Lords, that we ſhould not make peace with France as long as the Crown of Spain or the French Weſt India iſlands were in the hands of the Houſe of Bourbon. This vote, by ſubſequent events, was rendered of no effect. The ſecond inſtance was, when that Houſe, by a vote, declared the States of America independent. He would not ſay that vote was wrong, but it certainly was unfortunate; and, when a peace came to be negociated, it muſt be recollected, that this vote gave riſe to much embarraſſment. If there was an obvious opening to peace, and if Miniſters had interpoſed any obſtacle—or if it appeared from their paſt conduct, that they felt a ſtrong diſinclination to peace, then, indeed, it might be pleaded that there was a neceſſity for the preſent motion. It was to be aſked, how far this motion could be uſeful? The anſwer, he feared, muſt be, that it could be uſeful only to France. He would not be guilty of ſuch injuſtice to the Hon. Gentleman as not to ſuppoſe him poſſeſſed of the ſame feelings with every other Gentleman reſpecting the common enemy; but he muſt aſk, ſuppoſing a perſon was inclined to the intereſts of France, how that perſon could word a motion in a more favourable ſhape for the enemy? The Executive Directory feared nothing ſo much as a general confederacy of Europe, of which England was to be at the head. It was the buſineſs of their partizans to perſuade the people of France that no ſuch confederacy could be formed. It was a maxim in the new ſyſtem of ethics, that no man ſhould have a diſtinct or local feeling, but every one ſhould give way to what was called the general intereſts of humanity. Theſe ethics, however, entered not into his code: He felt as an Engliſhman, and for his country.

He would ſuppoſe that France was now a deſpotic monarchy—that the victory of the Nile had made a ſtrong impreſſion on that Government—that it was every where threatened by revolt and diſcontent—that its reſources were exhauſted, and its armies ſupplied only by conſcriptions: He would ſuppoſe the Miniſter bringing forward a motion like the preſent diſclaiming all foreign connections. What a clamour would then be heard from the oppoſite ſide of Houſe againſt the blindneſs and impolicy of the meaſure! How would thoſe

Gentlemen adjure the Miniſter, "not to interpoſe to ſave a lurking tyranny?"—He did not mean to ſay that France was actually fallen; and he therefore deprecated the more the meaſure which had for its tendency to reſtore the popularity of the French Government, to conſolidate its power, and to reſcue it from the trampling contempt in which it was held all over Europe. The motion would, in his opinion, be more conſiſtent, if it went to the extent of voting that we ſhould conclude a ſeparate peace. In its preſent ſhape, it went to the means without entertaining the end, or, in other words, it went to make the end more difficult of attainment, by diminiſhing the means. It placed a broken rudder in the hands of the Miniſter, which would rather retard than aſſiſt this progreſs. The grand argument which had been uſed againſt our recurring to the aid of our continental allies was, that ſuch of them as had been tried had proved faithleſs and unſound.

"If Heaven would make us but another world
"Of one entire and perfect chryſolite"

we might certainly expect to find leſs of frailty in the human compoſition. But as the world now went, it was neceſſary to uſe our materials as we found them. If we had formerly ſome ground of diſcontent with reſpect to the conduct of our allies, it did not therefore follow that we were bound to form, as it were, a kind of *national ſeceſſion*. We had neither the bitterneſs of diſcontent, nor the feelings of diſappointed ambition, to juſtify us in ſuch a ſeceſſion. We had ſuffered no calamity but ſuch as was common to all wars: Our ambition was of a generous kind, and we had enough of glory and of conqueſt, if ſuch had been our objects in entering into the war. The fact was, that we had been forced into the war. We were attacked upon points which not only affected ourſelves, but had relation to the ſafety of the whole world. It had been frequently aſked, what was the object of the war, and what it was, which until it was obtained, we could not lay down our arms? He ſhould ſay that it was our own ſafety, as it ſtood connected with the general good. It was to be regarded in a general and complicated view, not frittered away into various and partial reſults. The object of a war like the preſent was not a thing which a man may take in his hands, lay on the table and ſay, "there is an object!" He ſhould anſwer the queſtion in another way, by referring to the general ſtate of Europe. He could not be brought to envy the feelings of the man who could ſee Switzerland bleeding at every pore, Italy deſpoiled and trampled upon, Holland groaning under the weight of its oppreſſion, and Spain trembling at the nod of a deſpot; and who could ſay, we have nothing to do with their affairs. This was, in his opinion, to anticipate ſhame, and to run before diſgrace and ſorrow. We could not execute the great talk of deliverance alone; yet we were told, that becauſe our old allies had diſappointed us, therefore our new allies muſt deceive us. When our allies were ſlightingly mentioned, he ſhould like to know from which of their allies the French could expect any thing like a firm adheſion and co-operation. Was it from the Ciſalpine Republic, which they had taken as a living ſubject on which they may practiſe their experiments in political anatomy, and through the palpitating members of which they hunted for the vital principle of Republicaniſm? Was it from the Roman or Ligurian Republics, which they had ſo ſhamefully plundered and abuſed? Was it from the King of Sardinia, who, though a nominal Monarch in his palace, yet felt that the French General in the citadel of Turin was "a Viceroy over him?" If the war was once vigorouſly carried into Italy, none of theſe powers would quietly ſit down under ſuch tyranny. It was the ſame with Spain and Holland, whoſe reſources had been paliſied by the baneful touch of French fraternity, and who were now paying to the uſurpers

——"Mouth honour, breath,
"Which the proud heart would fain refuſe, but dare not."

The King of Spain, it was not impoſſible, may ſhortly be compelled to ſend a force to diſplace his daughter from the throne of Portugal; but if, like William Tell, he was obliged to ſhoot the apple from off the head of his child, was it not probable alſo that, like

like him, he would be ready to aim his laſt arrow at the breaſt of his tyrant? The victory of Lord Nelſon has produced a convulſive burſt of joy at Naples and Madrid, and at the latter place even in the preſence of the vaſſals of the Directory. If, with this general ſentiment in our favour, we could ſecure the co-operation of the Continental Powers, would it be ſaid that this was not a Britiſh object? He remembered the time when any aſſertion to the contrary would have been ſcouted in that Houſe. A Right Honourable Gentleman, who was not now preſent (Mr Fox), had loudly commended the Miniſter for his interference in favour of Holland in 1787. How far were circumſtances now changed? Did the old political ſyſtem end with September, and a new one begin with the month of Fructidor! was the French power now leſs formidable than before the diſſolution of the Monarchy? Were we to diſclaim in advance any ſhare in the great events, which were probably about to take place on the Continent? What was the firſt feeling of every man, and the firſt queſtion on hearing of the victory of Lord Nelſon? Was it not what would be its effect on the Continent, and whether it would tend to the deliverance of Europe? Our Government had interpoſed no formalities to prevent a peace from being concluded either at Liſle or at Paris. They were ſtill ready to receive or to offer terms of peace. But he, for one, could not approve the *aſide* ſpeech, intended to be overheard, and which was couched in the preſent motion, "We wiſh that the French Gentlemen would make ſome overtures." He did not wiſh to conciliate the enemy by offering to ſtrike foſt in the battle. If the time were fitting, he ſhould rather advance by a manly overture, than by an ambiguous motion, which may be differently underſtood by us, by the enemy, and by Europe. The queſtion was, whether, exulting in our own ſafety, we ſhould refuſe to interfere for other powers? Feeling, as he did, that every ſtride of France was dangerous to this country, and that every new acquiſition on her part was only a treaſured mean of hoſtility againſt us, he was moſt ſtrongly inclined to ſuch an interference. The preſent motion he ſhould therefore oppoſe, as contrary to the rules of eſtabliſhed policy, and as tending to palſy the powers of Europe, and to conſolidate the power of France.

Mr Jekyll ſaid, that after the long harangue of the Hon. Gentleman, the Houſe was as much at a loſs as ever to know what was the definitive object of the war. They had only heard at one time that it was a war of vengeance—at another, that it was a war for the deliverance of Europe; and at another time, that it was a war for no object at all. Notwithſtanding our ſubſidies all our former allies had forſaken us; and what better could we expect from our new connections. The Hon. Gentleman had ſpoken of the Turks in a ſtile which had much the appearance of what was called *quizzing* them; and he hoped the embaſſy of a Noble Lord to Conſtantinople was not intended to *quiz* the Grand Seigneor. No Continental alliance could be formed without the aid of ſupplies. They were, in fact, the natural fruit of ſuch alliance. He wiſhed, therefore, to be told explicitly by the Miniſter, whether any ſuch ſubſidies were to be granted. It was incumbent upon us, to look to our inſular policy: and the ſpeech of a Noble Lord in another place, though made this evening the object of ridicule, certainly furniſhed the beſt poſſible hints for availing ourſelves of our inſular ſituation. This was ſtated to be a new policy; but it was the policy of Walpole, of Bolingbroke, and of Mr T. Grenville, whoſe works had been lately offered to the public. If this iſland were but true to herſelf, ſhe could eaſily avoid the expence attendant on Continental connections.

Sir James Murray and *Mr W. Dickenſon* ſaid each a few words againſt the motion, when the queſtion was put, and negatived without a diviſion.

13. *Mr Pitt* moved the order of the day for the Houſe to reſolve itſelf into a Committee upon the land tax explanatory bill.

After a few words from *Mr Johnes*, the Houſe then reſolved itſelf into a Committee. The blanks of the bill were filled up, and ſome new clauſes added.

The bill having paſſed the Committee, the Houſe was reſumed.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Admiralty-Office, Dec. 23.

Copy of a letter from Commodore Duckworth, to Earl St Vincent.

Leviathan, off Fornelles, 19th Nov.

My Lord,

In purſuance of your Lordſhip's inſtructions to me of the 28th and 29th of October, I proceeded with the ſhips under my orders, and the troops under the command of the Hon. Gen. Charles Stuart, to the rendezvous off the Colombrettes; and after having been joined by his Majeſty's ſloop Peterell, and the arrangement for landing had been completed, on the 5th in the afternoon I ſtood for Minorca, but in conſequence of light winds, I did not make that iſland until day-break on the 7th, then within five miles of the Port of Fornelles, where finding the wind directly out of that harbour, and the enemy prepared for our reception, I (having previouſly conſulted the General) made the ſignal for Capt. Bowen, of the Argo, accompanied by the Cormorant and Aurora to aſſiſt in covering the landing, to lead into the creek of Addaya, there not being water or ſpace enough for the line-of-battle ſhips, which he executed in a moſt officer-like and judicious manner: And in hauling round the northern point, a battery of four 12 pounders fired one gun, but on ſeeing the broadſide, the enemy left it, blowing up their magazines, and ſpiking the guns, when the tranſports was got in without damage, though there was ſcarcely room for ſtowing them in tiers. During this ſervice, which was rapidly executed, the Leviathan and Centaur plied on and off Fornelles, to divert the attention of the enemy; but knowing an expeditous landing to be our greateſt object, as ſoon as I obſerved the tranſports were nearly in the creek, I bore away, and anchored with the Leviathan and Centaur off its entrance, to ſee that ſervice performed. One battalion was put on ſhore by eleven o'clock, and directly took the height, which proved fortunate, as the enemy very quickly appeared in two diviſions, one of which was marching down towards the battery before mentioned, when I ordered the covering ſhips to commence a cannonade, which effectually checked their progreſs, and the General kept them at bay with the troops he had; and by ſix o'clock in the afternoon the whole were on ſhore, with 8 ſix-pounders, field pieces, and eight days proviſions, as alſo two howitzers. On the ſame evening, after ordering the Cormorant and Aurora to proceed off Port Mahon, with ſeven tranſports, to form a diverſion, I got under weigh with the Leviathan and Centaur, and turned up to Fornelles with an intent to force the harbour; but on my entering the paſſage I found the enemy had evacuated the forts, and the wind throwing out cauſed me to anchor, when I made the Centaur's ſignal, (which was following me) to haul off, landed the marines of the Leviathan, took poſſeſſion of two forts of 4 guns each, and one of 6: But ſoon after the General requeſting I would not enter this port, I ordered Captain Digby to embark the marines, and to put to ſea, and cruiſe under the command of Captain Markham, who was employed in covering the port of Fornelles and Addaya, and preventing ſuccour being thrown in, whilſt my pendant was hoiſted on board the Argo, where I continued two days, aiding and directing the neceſſary ſupplies for the army. In this I was ably aſſiſted by Captain Bowen. During theſe two days, I viſited head-quarters to conſult with the General, when it was decided, as the anchorage at Addaya was extremely hazardous, and the tranſports in hourly riſk of being loſt, to remove them to Fornelles, which was executed under cover of the Leviathan and Centaur. On the 11th, I ordered the Centaur off Cieudadella to prevent reinforcements being thrown in, and anchored the Leviathan at Fornelles, landed ſome 12-pounder field pieces and howitzers, the ſailors drawing them up to the army, ſhifted my pendant to the Leviathan, and left the Argo at Addaya, ordering Captain Bowen to continue there till all the depots were re-embarked and removed, which was effected that day. Late that evening I received information from the General that four ſhips, ſuppoſed to be of the line, were ſeen between Minorca and Majorca. In the middle of the night the General ſent me another corroborating report from the look-out man, of the four ſhips ſeen being of the line. I inſtantly put to ſea (though one fifth

of

of the crews were on ſhore) with two ſhips of the line, a 44, and three armed tranſports, and ſtood towards Cieudadella; when at day light next morning, that place bearing SE. by S. 8 or 9 miles, five ſhips were ſeen from the maſt-head, ſtanding directly down for Ciudadella. I inſtantly made the ſignal for a general chace, when I ſoon obſerved the enemy haul their wind for Majorca; but I continued the purſuit to prevent the poſſibility of their throwing in ſuccour to Minorca; and at noon I diſcovered the enemy from my fore-yard to be 4 large frigates and a ſloop of war; this latter keeping her wind, I made the Argo's ſignal to haul after her, and Captain Brown, by his letter of the 15th, informs me he took her at half paſt three that afternoon, and proved to be his Majeſty's ſloop Peterell, which had been captured the preceding forenoon by the ſquadron of frigates I was in chace of. For further particulars on that head I ſhall refer you to Capt. Brown's letter, where I am convinced you will obſerve, with great concern, the very harſh treatment the officers and crew of the Peterell met with when captured; and he has ſince added, that one man, who reſiſted the Spaniards plundering him of 40 guineas, was murdered and thrown overboard. I continued the chace till 11 o'clock that night, when I was within three miles of the ſternmoſt frigate; but finding the wind become light, I feared it would draw me too far from the iſland of Minorca; I therefore haled the Centaur, and directed Capt. Markham to purſue the enemy, ſteered directly to Cieudadella, which I made the ſubſequent afternoon, (the 14th,) with the Calcutta and Ulyſſes, the next morning, (the 15th) at day break, the Argo joined us off Cieudadella. Having no communication from the General, I ſent the firſt Lieut. Mr Jones, though a very hazardous night, in the ſhip's cutter, with a letter to the General, propoſing to cannonade Cieudadella if it would facilitate his operations. In the morning of the 16th Lieut. Jones returned with duplicates of two letters I previouſly received by Capt. Gifford, the General's aid-de-camp, acquainting me he had ſummoned the town on the 14th, and that terms of capitulation were agreed upon on the 15th to ſurrender to his Majeſty's arms. When I went on ſhore I ſigned the capitulation the General had made, on which fortunate event I moſt truely congratulate your Lordſhip. The Centaur joined, not having been ſo fortunate as to capture either of the Spaniſh frigates, though within four miles of the ſternmoſt, Capt. Markham being apprehenſive the continuance of the chace would carry him to a great diſtance from more eſſential ſervice.

From the 10th in the morning, when Fort Charles was put into our poſſeſſion, and Lord Mark Kerr in the Cormorant, with the Aurora, Capt. Caulfield, entered the port, thoſe ſhips have been employed for the defence of the harbour, guarding the priſoners; and I have the pleaſure to aſſure your Lordſhip, in the performance of the various ſervices incident to the movements I have ſtated, I cannot paſs too high encomiums on the Captains, Officers, and Seamen under my command. From Captains Pouliden and Preſsland, Agents for Tranſports, I received every poſſible aſſiſtance in their Departments; and when it was neceſſary I ſhould proceed to ſea to bring to action a reputed ſuperior force, they ſhewed great ſpirit and uſed every exertion to accompany me in their armed tranſports, as did Lieutenant Simmonds, the other agent in his. I muſt now beg leave to mention my firſt Lieutenant Mr George Jones, who, in the various and hazardous ſervices he had to undergo during the attack of the iſland, has proved highly deſerving my praiſe; I have therefore put him to act as Commander of the Peterell, which ſhip I have preſumed to recommiſſion to convey the preſent diſpatches. There is alſo high merit due to my ſecond Lieutenant, Mr William Buchannan, whom I landed as ſecond in command under Capt. Bowen, with more than 250 ſeamen: There were likewiſe the Leviathan and Centaure's marines with the army to the number of 150; but other eſſential ſervice called Capt. Bowen on board his ſhip, the command of the ſeamen divolved on Lieut. Buchannan, and, as will appear by the ſtrongeſt accompanying teſtimony given him from the Commander in Chief of the army, he performed the ſervices with the army with the greateſt ability. I ſhould therefore feel myſelf remiſs was I to cloſe this without

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noticing to your Lordſhip the particular exertions, activity, and correctneſs of Lieut. Whilton, of the Conſtitution cutter, in the various ſervices and meſſages he had to execute.

The General having ſignified his wiſh that his diſpatches ſhould be ſent without delay, I have not yet been able to viſit the port of Mahon, to obtain a return of the ſtate of the dock-yard or veſſels capured in that place; but I underſtand, from Capt. Lord Robert Mark Kerr, that there are no ſhips of war, and only one merchant ſhip of value; the particulars of which I will tranſmit by the earlieſt oppportunity. I have the honour to be, my Lord, with the higheſt reſpect, &c. &c.

J. T. DUCKWORTH.

SIR, *Argo, at Sea, 15th Nov.*

I have the honour to acquaint you, that at half paſt three P. M. on the 13th inſtant, I had the good fortune to come up with the ſhip that I hauled the wind after round Cape Rogue, conformable to your ſignal; ſhe proved to be his Majeſty's ſhip Peterell, in poſſeſſion of Don Antonio Franco Gandrada, ſecond Captain of the Spaniſh Frigate Flora, who, in company with the three others named in the margin, (Caſilda, of 40 guns; Pomona, of 40 guns; and Proſerpine, of 40,) captured her the day before.

Theſe frigates had come from Carthagena, had touched at Barcelona, ſailed from thence on Saturday laſt bound to Mahon, with eight millions of rials to pay the troops.

Deeming it abſolutely neceſſary to make the Peterell uſeful until you return, I took all the Spaniards out, (72 in number,) and gave her in charge of my firſt Lieutenant Mr Lyne, with a maſter, two midſhipmen, thirty ſeamen, twelve marines, directing them to land an Officer and Guide at Fornelles, with a letter for Gen. Stuart, and to return here immediately.

I am ſorry to inform you the Spaniards behaved very ill to the officers and ſeamen of the Peterell, having robbed and plundered them of every thing. Great part of the Captain's and officers cloaths I have recovered. I have the honour to be, Sir, &c.

JAMES BROWN.

Commodore Duckworth.

Before Cieudadella, Nov. 18.

SIR,

I have the honour to return you and the Gentlemen employed on ſhore under your command, my ſincere thanks for your activity, zeal, and aſſiſtance, in forwarding the Light Artillery of the army; neither can too much praiſe be given to the ſeamen for their friendly and chearful exertions under very hard labour; exertions which were accompanied with a propriety of behaviour which I greatly attribute to your management, and which will ever merit my acknowledgements, and affords me the ſatisfaction of aſſuring you that I am, with ſincere regard,

Yours, &c. CHARLES STUART.

Lieut. Buchannan.

[Follows a long liſt of ſtores; &c. and two ſhips and ſeveral ſmall veſſels, taken poſſeſſion of in the harbour of Port Mahon.]

LONDON.

Dec. 26. A dreadful fire broke out at the manſion-houſe of the Earl of Eſſex, in Curzon-ſtreet, May Fair, which conſumed the whole premiſes. The flames raged with ſuch fury that ſcarce any of the furniture could be ſaved. It began while the family were at dinner. The accident is ſuppoſed to have happened from a candle falling out of one of the girandoles on a ſopha, and communicating to the window curtains. The loſs is eſtimated at 30,000l.

A General Bill of all the Chriſtenings and Burials in London, from Dec. 12. 1797, *to Dec.* 11. 1798.

Chriſtened,		Buried,	
Males,	9497	Males,	8964
Females,	8438	Females,	9191
In all,	17,927	In all,	18,155

Whereof have died,

Under 2 years	5728	50 and 60	1566
Betw. 2 and 5	2189	60 and 70	1262
5 and 10	802	70 and 80	919
10 and 20	573	80 and 90	353
20 and 30	1280	90 & a 100	41
30 and 40	1678	105	1
40 and 50	1732	108	1

Increaſed in the Burials this year, 1141.

EDIN-

EDINBURGH.

Dec. Number of ships captured from the different hoſtile powers during the war, to the preſent month.

Of the line, including Dutch ſhips of 54 and 56 guns	-	73
Frigates of	- 28 to 44 guns	92
Ships	- - 20 to 26	50
Sloops of war	14 to 18	76
Cutters, gun-veſſels, &c. 12 guns and under	- - - -	60
	351 men of war.	
	539 privateers.	
Total	——	890.

A Meteorological Abſtract of the year 1798.

Taken in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh.

Thermometer.		*Barometer.*	
Greateſt ht.	76	Greateſt ht.	30.72
Mean ht.	46.56	Mean ht.	29.74
Loweſt,	14	Loweſt,	28.4
Weather.		*Weather.*	
Warm days	6	Cloudy days	47
Temperate	133	Clear	157
Mild	157	Rain	135
Froſty	69	Sleet	6
	——	Snow	7
Total	365	Stormy	13
			——
		Total	365

There has fallen this year of rain in inches, 23.130.

A general Mortality Bill in Edinburgh, from Jan. 1798, to Jan. 1799.

	Buried.
Males	980
Females	1038
Total———	2018
Whereof have died	
Under 2 years old	682
Between 2 & 5	240
5 & 10	84
10 & 20	60
20 & 30	66
30 & 40	138
40 & 50	140
50 & 60	210
60 & 70	194
70 & 80	124
80 & 90	64
90 & 100	16

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

Dec. 17. At London, Major General Tarleton, to Miſs Bertie, niece to Lord Willoughby.

18. James Strange, M. P. banker, to Mrs Henry Drummond, daughter of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

21. At Edinburgh, Capt. James Hogg, of Leith, to Miſs Margaret Murray, daughter of Wm Murray, Eſq; merchant in Edinburgh.

23. Mr John Burnett, writer in Stonehaven, to Miſs Ann Craig, daughter of John Craig, of Drimmies, Eſq.

28. Rev. Mr Donald Mackenzie, miniſter of Foddarty, to Miſs Mary Fyers, daughter of the late Thomas Fyers, Eſq; overſeer of the King's works.

DEATHS.

Dec. 2. At Edinburgh, Captain George Sinclair, (Bridgend) late of 60th foot.

— At Bath, the Hon. Wm King, brother to Lord King.

4. At Chatton, James Robertſon, Eſq; of Samiſton.

11. At Cambuſlang, in the 25th year of her age, Mrs Elizabeth Meek, wife of James Davidſon, Eſq; W. S. and daughter of the Rev. Dr Meek miniſter of Cambuſlang.

16. At Edinburgh, Mr George Hay, ſecond ſon of the late James Hay, Eſq; of Belton.

— At Glaſgow, Mr Hamilton Forſter, grocer.

18. At Dunkeld, Mr William Blair, merchant.

— Thomas Gilbert, Eſq; in the 79th year of his age, member in ten ſucceſſive parliaments, and ſeveral years chairman of the committee of Ways and Means.

20. At Edinburgh, Mr Francis Strachan, W. S.

— At Cupar, Robert Stark, Eſq; Commiſſary of St Andrew's.

20. John Duncan, Eſq; of Moſs town, late Provoſt of Aberdeen, in the 80th year of his age.

— At Alloa Tower, Mrs Erſkine of Mar.

25. George Thoudon, of Burnhouſe, Eſq; aged 85.

27. At Airley Lodge, the Right Hon. Anne Counteſs of Airly.

— Robert Crothie, Eſq; of Kipp.

27. Daniel Montgomery, Eſq; late merchant in Glaſgow, aged 86.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Dec. 5. Alexander Doig, manufacturer, near Dundee.

7. John Rickerby, merchant, Springfield.

21. Andrew Eadie, merchant in Perth.

22. Hugh Arbuckle, merchant in South Queenſferry.

26. John Campbell, late vintner, Perth.

— William Stuart, keeper of the Fountain tavern, Glaſgow.

INDEX

TO VOLUME LX; OR, VOL. V. OF A NEW SERIES OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

N. B. *An Account of the Weather, Prices of Proviſions, and Agricultural Report, with Prices of Grain, Stocks, &c. will be found at the end of every Number.*

PART I. *Eſſays, Biography and Anecdotes, Agricultural Improvements, and New Inventions.*

Ætna, ſcarcity of water on 312
Agnano, Lake of 313
Agriculture, curſory view of 93
Agricultural improvement 794
Air, method of purifying rooms from bad 294
Alexandria, account of 612
Almanacks, origin of 29
American States, preſent condition of 236
Anecdotes and Gleanings, 7. 81. 227. 302. 375. 587. 663. 728. 800. 870
of William Lord Mansfield 4. 79
of Alexander Selkirk, or Robinſon Cruſoe 6
Animals, digeſtive powers of 170
Anna, a fragment in the manner of Sterne 161. 229
Apology for a Great Parſonage 320
Araneology 74
Argillaceous earth, formation of 104
Aſcent of ſap in trees 74
Aſſeſſment of the Houſe of Commons in 1641. 150
Auguſtan age of England 743
Averno, Lake of 313
Baron Born, anecdotes of 437
Batchelors, an apology for 532
Bertrand M. particulars of the eſcape of 830
Biography, eſſay on 102
Biography, Sketch of
Lord Duncan 3
John Wilkes, Eſq; 75. 153
Michael Scott, Friar Bacon of Scotland 78
Sir Jos. Reynolds 151. 373
Staniſlaus King of Poland 219
Mrs Mary Wolſtonecroft Godwin 295
Sir Iſaac Newton 367
Solomon Geſner 368
Sir William Jones 435
Pope Pius VI. the Reigning Pope 511
Lord Dreghorn 579. 655
Lavoiſier 584
Scheiller the German Poet 658
Grainger Dr 723
Sir William James, Bart 725
Mrs Piozzi 795
General Pichegru 797
John Philip Kemble, Eſq; 865
John O'Keeffe, Eſq; 867
Bleaching paper, new patent for 218
Bohemia, deſcription of rocks in 740
Bolingbroke, Lord, character of 226
Braddock, Miſs, melancholy account of 188
Britain, Hiſtory of Knowledge, &c. there, during Cromewell's uſurpation 13. 85. 176. 233
— Biſhop of Landaff's addreſs to the people of 109
— Addreſs to, by R. A. 158
— Statement of the wealth and property of 703
— Hiſtory of Learning in, during the reign of Charles II. 821. 887
Bull, John, ſketches of 440
Burns, receipt for curing 2
Calcareous earth, formation of 11
Caſhmere, deſcription of 877
Character, national obſervations on 26
— of Modern Greeks 884
Character, an odd 585
Cheſs, origin of the game 28
Chineſe Embaſſy, remarkable occurrences of, and curious particulars of the Chineſe Empire 235. 380. 448. 542. 599. 677. 808
Criticiſm of Dr Johnſon's works 442

Colours

Colours permament, patent for dying 764
Compoſition, on grace in 661
Comus, origin of 825
Contentment, eſſay on 873
Crimes, on the tendency of the preſent laws for preventing 829
Dialogues of the living 30. 94. 305
Dialogue between a miniſter and a courtier 757
Digeſtive powers of animals, remarks &c. on 170
Dog, remarkable anecdote of 242
Domingo, particulars regarding that iſland 886
Duncan Lord Viſcount, account of 3
Dunſinnan caſtle, account of 22
Egotiſm in writing 102
England, Auguſtan age of 733
Enlightened public, remarks on the phraſe 875
Fable, view of the origin and nature of 747. 805
Fame, on the love of 24
Faſt day ſermons 159
Female character, importance of education in forming the 17
Female education, view of the preſent ſtate of, in Europe 613. 681
France, picture of in 1798. 102
Friar, extraordinary account of a 83
Gaming, an apologue 322
German character, remarks on 247
Ghaut mountains, deſcription of 829
Glaſs, diſcovery of 218
Government, civil, the neceſſity of 90
Greeks, character of the modern 884
Gypſum, remarks on as a manure 460
Heads, reflections on 98
Health, humorous enquiry after 391
Herrings, beſt method of curing 366
Highland dreſs, origin of 741
India, rout to, over land 879
Ireland, account of the preſent ſtate and manners of 607
Iron, on the formation of 394
Johnſon's works, critic upon 442
Keltie, origin of 101
Lavater, anecdote of 160
— Viſit to 535
Letters Original,
Mr Edmund Burke 8 730
Empreſs of Ruſſia to Voltaire 259
Brothers the Prophet 443
Dr Lardner 444
Dr Fleeming 444
Sterne 832
Life, deſcription of a perſon, deſtined for long 304
— definition of 400
Lying, propoſals for an academy of 239
Mad dog, cure for the bite of 366
Malta, account of 612
Mankind, their general contentment 873
Marcou iſlands, account of 758
Marvellous, on the love of the 96
Medals, on the utility of 168
Modern philoſopher, tenets of 752
Muſeums in Sicily 312
Neceſſity, the mother of invention 387
Needles, new patent for making 434
New South Wales, remarks on the natives, &c. 672. 811
Oratory, eſſay on parliamentary 804
Paintings of the Netherlands, account of the moſt noted 243
— in Holland 317. 386
Paint, a ſubſtitute for 578
Paper, new patent for bleaching 218
Philoſophers, comparative merit of 390
Philoſopher, tenets of a modern 752
Pinkerton, John, character of 584
Playhouſe bill, hiſtory of 515
Plants, new ones uſed for food 578
Poets, comparative merit of 390
Pope, ſome particulars of the death of 370
Portugueſe, manners and cuſtoms of 164
Poverty, various cauſes of 827
Public, enlightened, on the phraſe 875
Rank in ſociety, on the diſtinction of 817
Red, new method of dying 578
Roaſting, humurous eſſay on, by Fielding 684
Ropes, patent machine for making 434
Rumford Count, his experiments on coloured ſhadows 249
Sarique, deſcription of 184
Scalds, receipt for curing 2
Scott, Michael, account of 78
Shadows, Count Rumford's experiments on 249
Shan Trews, origin of 598
Ships bottoms, &c. new compoſition for preſerving 510
Sicilies, anecdotes regarding 312. 380
Singularities of great men 303
Smoke, receipt for curing 2
Smollet, Dr, character of 301
Soap, ſubſtitute for 294
Society, deſtinctions of rank in 817
Soil, on the formation of 173
Spain, anecdotes regarding 445
Spring, thoughts on 309
Stains of wine, receipt for taking out 654
Statiſtical queries, by M. Volney 529

Steam engine, new patent for 722
Stones, toads found in 245
St Domingo, particulars of 886
St Marcou iſlands, account of 758
Suicide, extraordinary inſtance of 826
Sword-fiſh, fiſhery of 539
Tales.
a Genteo ſtory, after Sterne 19
a Chriſtmas Tale 37. 113
Effects of Gaming 188
The Cup Bearer 261
Hiſtory of an Emigrant Family 329
Memoirs of Clement Athal 758
The Widow, a fragment 893
Taſte, effect of, on the heart 683
Tea trade, general view of 881
Toads found in ſtones, doubts regarding 245
Toothach, cure for 722
Topography of Scotland, counties of Angus, 32. 106. Kincardine, 181 Aberdeen, 254. 323. Banff 396. 453 Moray, 453. Nairn, 457. Inverneſs, 522. Argyle, 524. 589. Roſs 592. Sutherland, 596. Caithneſs 665. Orkney Iſlands, 667. Shetland Iſlands, 670. Weſtern Iſlands, 733
Turkey, anecdotes of the government of 277
Vegetable earth, formation of 173
Wales, New South, remarks on the natives, &c. 672. 861
Wallians, North, character of 530
Wilkes, John, life of 75
Wool bearing animals, remarks on 623
Wren, anecdote of 587

PART II. *Hiſtorical Intelligence, Foreign and Domeſtic, and State Papers.*

The reader will find a variety of miſcellaneous articles under each of the following diviſions, which could not be put into an Index.

AMERICA.

Negociation with France 254. Abſtract of the correſpondence relative thereto 401. Reſolutions which followed 499. Loſs of his Majeſty's ſhip of war De Braack 500. Commencement of hoſtilities with France; Gen. Waſhington takes the command of the Army 570. 629. Hoſtile preparations by Congreſs 710. Yellow fever rages at New York and Philadelphia 711. Accounts of its abatement 783. Further accounts thereof 859.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Account of a mutiny there 64.

EDINBURGH.

Damage done by the ſwelling of the Tay 64. Dr Hutton's collection of foſſils left to the Univerſity of Edinburgh 65. Manſion houſe of Sneaton burnt 65. Fire at Stirling 65. Proceedings of the Highland Society 65. 503. Forged notes in circulation 65. Fire in Cannongate 65. Rioters in Fife puniſhed 66. Melancholy accident at Lord Sommerville's lime works 66. Clauſe of the militia act regarding Scotland 66. *Proceedings* of the High Court of Juſticiary.—Trial of Mealmaker for ſedition 66.—Of Menzies, Cameron, &c. for ſeditious and riotous practices 68. 212. 358. 504. Trial of M'Donald of Glengary 646. Subſcriptions opened for the defence of the country 146. Meeting to conſider the low prices of grain 146. Proceſſion in compliment to Lord Duncan 147. Meeting and addreſs by the Commiſſion of the General Aſſembly on the preſent ſtate of public affairs 208. Reſolutions of the Highland Society 208. State of the militia to ſerve in Scotland 290. Winter amuſements 291. Plan for defence of the country, and ſubſtance of Mr Dundas' letter relative thereto 356. Watchmaker's ſhop in S. Bridge broke into 358. *Proceedings* of the General Aſſembly 358. Lieut. M'Leod killed in a duel by Glengary 502. Two important mercantile caſes decided by the Court of Seſſion 503. Competition of Highland pipers 574. Singular forgery 574. Leith races 574. Melancholy accident in the Frith of Clyde 642. Liſt of gentlemen who have received the degree of M. D. 643. Election of magiſtrates 717. Loſs of the Jaſon frigate 717. General muſter of the volunteer corps of Edinburgh 717. Fate of the Breſt ſquadron intended for the invaſion of Ireland 718. Addreſs of the city of Edinburgh on Lord Nelſon's victory 788. Sir John Dalrymple's manufacture of ſoap from fiſh 788. Proceedings of the Synod of Lothian and Tweddale relative to their employing clergymen to officiate for them not of the eſtabliſhed church 789. St Peter's chapel broke into 862. Procedure of the Preſbytery of Edinburgh regarding Dr Greenfield 863. Rev. Mr Greville Ewing reſigns his charge 863. The

Grand

Grand Lodge of Free Maſons reſolve to build a hall 862. Number of ſhips captured during the war 915. Meteorological abſtract for 1798, 915. General mortality bill for Edinburgh for 1798, 915.
Appeals 212. 362.
Liſt of appeals determined laſt ſeſſion 505.
Circuits 360. 644. 718.

EAST INDIES.

Accounts from thence 286. 571.

EGYPT.

Buonaparte lands at Alexandria 569. French fleet defeated by Lord Nelſon 657. Buonaparte's proclamation 713. Oppoſition by the Mamelukes 785. Proceedings of the French there 860.

FRANCE.

Prohibition of importation of Engliſh goods 60. Threaten to invade Great Britain or Ireland 60. Proceedings of the Directory &c, 141. 285. Expedition of Buonaparte 429. Buonaparte's diſpatches from Malta 497. New taxes 498. Proceedings in the council 569. 712. State of that country 784.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

N. B. *Under this head will alſo be found captures of ſhips therein announced.*
From Lord Bridport 354. 495
From Lord Camden &c. *Ireland* 424. 483. 636
From Captain Popham giving an account of the deſtruction of the Bruges canal 427. and Maj. Gen. Coote 495
From General Maitland St Domingo 494
From Captain Stirling 495
From Captain Dixon 637
From Lord Nelſon 638. 835
From Sir John Borlaſe Warren &c. 704. 780
From Captain King &c. 781
From Captain Hood &c. 836
From General Stuart 836
From Commodore Duckworth 912

GERMANY.

Mentz capitulates 61. Negociation at Raſtadt 201. 285. 570. Aſſault on the French ambaſſador's hotel at Vienna 353. Negociations at Raſtadt 711. 784. 859.

HOLLAND.

State of the country 62. Admiral de Winter's addreſs to the ſtates 62. Diſturbances in conſequence of the French 142. Alterations of their articles with France 202. Obliged to make contributions for France 286. Revolution there 499. Complaints there 570. Proclamation againſt the admiſſion of Britiſh goods 703. Inſurrection in Belgium 784.

IRELAND.

State of the military forces there 62. And budget for 1798. 145. Debate upon the ſtate of the country 145. News paper ſuppreſſed 207. State of the country—Trial of the murderers of Colonel St George and Mr Uniack 287. Diſturbances break out 355. Trial of the Earl of Kingſton 432. Open rebellion there 424. 483. 563. 630. 697. Lord Cornwallis appointed Lord Lieutenant 501. Trial of Meſſrs Shears 501. Other trials for high treaſon 571. Nupper Tandy lands 641. Report of the committee of ſecrecy 630. 697. Invaſion by the French 634. Proceedings of Parliament 714. French ſquadron defeated off the Iriſh coaſt by Sir J. B. Warren, and Wolfe Tone taken priſoner 786. Account of ſtate priſoners 861. Union with Great Britain projected 861.

ITALY.

Inſurrection at Rome 61. Proceedings of the French there 204. Intelligence from Naples 786. Re-commencement of hoſtilities with the French 860.

LONDON.

Lord Moira's letter to Col. M'Mahon on the preſent ſtate of political parties 57. Letter Mr Fox to Col. M'Mahon 59. State of the military force of Great Britain 62. Captains Drew and Pulling loſt 62. Trial of Major Torrence 63. Duel betwixt the Earl of Lonſdale and Sir F. Vane 63. Books opened at the Bank for voluntary contributions 63. Extraordinary proceedings on Mr Fox's birth day 143. An audacious robbery 643. Binns, O'Connor, &c. taken priſoners 205. Officers of the Hermione murdered. Antiquities found in Lancaſhire 206. Raiſing of dead bodies detected 206. Death of Mr Joſeph Strong the blind mechanic 206. Forgery by Mr Barrett 207. Loſs of the Pallas frigate 288. Several perſons apprehended for treaſon 289. Proceedings of the Whig Club 355. O'Coigly condemned for high treaſon 355. French repulſed in an attack on St Marcou 355. Mr Pitt and Mr Tierney fight a duel 430. Plan for arming the citizens of London 431.

Arrival

Arrival of fleets, &c. 501. Mr Palmer the actor dies ſuddenly at Liverpool 573. Eſtabliſhment of the army and navy 573. Statement of the wealth and property of Great Britain 723. Lord Mayor elected 715. Lord Nelſon's letter to the Lord Mayor, accompanying Monſ. Blanquet's ſword 715. Meeting of the Bankers, &c. on the propoſed income bill 787. Sentence pronounced on Captain Thompſon 861. Horrid murder of Miſs Wilſon 861. Sum received for reducing the national debt 861. Award of damages to the Marquis of Abercorn 862. Fire at the Earl of Eſſex's 914. General mortality bill for 1798, 914.

Commons.

Aſſeſſed tax bill 52. 46. 131. Mr Tierney's motion for aboliſhing the office of third Secretary of State 55. Augmentation of the army 131. Supplementary militia 197. Meſſage from his Majeſty for a penſion to Lords Duncan and St Vincent 197. Finances 198. Diſtilleries of Scotland 199. French priſoners 199. Defence of the country 273. Redemption of the land tax 275. 352. Slave trade 349. Defence of the country 413. Suſpenſion of the Hebeas Corpus 419. The budget 420. New taxes 421. Augmentation of the navy 471. Meſſage regarding the militia ſerving in Ireland 474. Newſpaper bill 473. His Majeſty's meſſage relative to the defence of the country 475. Parliament prorogued 482. Parliament opened. The addreſs 778. Motion of thanks to Lord Nelſon and Sir J. B. Warren 848. Navy and army eſtimates 850. Budget 893. New taxes 897. Negociation 906.

Lords.

Proceedings in the upper houſe 56. Aſſeſſed tax bill 139. Meſſage from his Majeſty reſpecting an invaſion 140. Meſſage regarding a penſion to Lords Duncan and St Vincent 201. Motion for the diſmiſſal of Miniſters 281. Defence of the country 423. Tax on armorial bearings 479. Motion relative to Ireland 481. Various bills receive the Royal aſſent 481. Parliament prorogued 482. Parliament opened. King's ſpeech, and the addreſs 775. Motion of thanks to Lord Nelſon and Sir J. B. Warren 854.

PORTUGAL.

State of the country 60. Refuſe the demands of France 142.

PRUSSIA.

King's letter to the French Directory 61. Rejects the overtures of France 499.

RUSSIA.

State of that country 287. Proclamation by the Emperor 430. Views of co-operating with Britain 499. Proceedings there 571.

SARDINIA.

Diſturbances there 570.

SPAIN.

State of the country 60. 143. 499.

STATE PAPERS.

Explanatory article between Great Britain and America 628. Letter from General Waſhington on being appointed Commander in Chief of the American army 629. Memorial by the Porte 773. Turkiſh declaration of war againſt the French 774.

SWIZERLAND.

State of the country 141. Over-run by the French 202. Their oppreſſive meaſures 429. They riſe and are defeated 712. Imperial troops enter the Griſons 785.

TURKEY.

Rebellion of Paſſwan Oglou 287. 570. The Grand Signior compliments Lord Nelſon 712. A Ruſſian fleet paſſes the Dardanelles into the Mediterranean 785. Great preparations for war 860.

WEST INDIES.

Trial of Lord Camelford 266. Evacuation of St Domingo 494. State of that Iſland 859.

PART III. *Books Reviewed.*

A Chapter to the Engliſh Multitude 405
African Aſſociation, Proceedings of 690
Agricultural Communications, vols. I. II. 403. 463
Appeal to the Head and Heart, on a French Invaſion 192
Anderſon's Treatiſe on Draining Bogs 840
Bath Society Papers 623
Baronage of Scotland 547
Barton on the Facinating quality of the Rattleſnake 188
Beckman's Hiſtory of Inventions and Diſcoveries 686. 762
Beddoes' Lecture 124
Biographical, &c. Anecdotes 192

Brooks' Obſervations on the Cuſtoms of Italy 689
Burke's three Memorials on French affairs 45. 122
Clery's Journal of the Occurrences in the Temple 551
Connection betwixt Induſtry and Property 768
Conſiderations on Public Affairs 263
Cowes Religious and Philanthropic Tracts 193
Dalrymple, Sir John's, conſequences of an Invaſion 404
Dirom's Plans for the Defence of the Country 46
France, a Sketch of Modern 338
Franklin's Hiſtory of Schah Aulum 764
Gamble on the different modes of Conveying Signals 342
Giſborne's Enquiry into the Duties of the Female Sex 41
Howard's thoughts on the Structure of the Globe 266
Hume's commentaries on the Law of Scotland 464. 555
James, the Fataliſt 190
Irwin's enquiry into the Expedition of Buonaparte 842
Life of Catharine II. Empreſs of Ruſſia 617
Lord Monboddo's Antient Metaphiſics 118
M'Nayr's Guide to the Highlands 125
Memoirs of Mr Burke 466
Murphy's State of Portugal 407
Orford, Lord's Works 461. 621
Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London in 1797. 406. 692
— 1798 Part I. 769
Perouſe's Voyage 838
Reflections on the Iriſh Conſpiracy 343
Reynolds, Sir Joſhua's Works 43
Sketch of Modern France 338
Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London for 1797. 406. 692
— for 1798. 769
Warner's walk through Wales 550
Willyam's Weſt Indian Campaign 335
Wimpffen's Voyage to St Domingo 838

Part IV. *Poetry.*

Addreſs to a lady 470
Addreſs on the death of Mr Palmer 561
Banks of Doon, by R. Burns 349
Character of a Britiſh ſeaman 412
Coaches to be laid down in 1798, 272
Cupid, to Dr Taylor the occuliſt, by Lord Dreghorn 696
Delia, a ſong 470
Deſcription of Dunkeld 346
Elegy on Spring 196
Ennui, by Lord Dreghorn 694
Epilogue to the Caſtle Spectre 128
Epiſtle to Dr Blacklock, by Lord Dreghorn 696
— to Dr Anderſon, by Mr Dyer 846
Hymn on temperence, juſtice, &c. 50
Lines written in a French priſon 195
Malvina, a dirge 412
Mary, an elegy 271
Metaſtaſio's ode to Venus 469
Monaſtic life 562
Ode for the year 1798, 50
— for his Majeſty's birth day 411
— to Venus, by Metaſtaſio 469
— to Autumn 697
— to Cheerfulneſs, by Dr Grainger 845
— to the ſky lark 846
O' wat ye wha's in yon town, by R. Burns 127
Pacific propoſal, by Lord Dreghorn 773
Poem found in the ruins of Fairly caſtle 195
Poor Tom, a tale, 771
Prologue, an occaſional 129
— to the Caſtle Spectre 128
— to the mouth of the Nile 848
Song by the late R. Burns 52
— from poems by an artiſt 272
— the banks of Doon, by R. Burns 349
— Delia 470
— at a meeting of volunteers 561
— on the threatened invaſion 626
The beggar girl 197
The beggars, a tale 469
The dutiful wife 51
The entail, a fable 625
The home bred linnet 51
The ſimile illuſtrated 127
The wanderer 626
The wiſh 470
Verſes on the death of Lord Hailes 272
— to a friend on his marriage 411
— to a robin 197
William and Molly a legendary tale 772

PART V. *Marriages, Births, Deaths, Preferments, Sequestrations.*

MARRIAGES.

Abernethie 148
Adamſon 213. 863
Ainſlie 575
Aitken 864
Allardice 790
Alves 575
Anderſon 652
Arthington 652
Baillie 652
Balfour 652. 864
Barbour 123
Bartlet 575
Bradſhaw 864
Barklay 719
Barr 363
Beith 507
Belch 651
Bell 292
Bennet 507
Bertie 915
Blane 652
Boger 213
Boyd 213
Brown 213. 292
Bruce 202. 864
Brunton 864
Burdon 213
Buſhby 72
Burnet 915
Cameron 507
Campbell 213. 363. 790
Chalmers 148. 652
Clarke 652
Clagſton 864
Cockburn 363. 575
Cormack 363
Craig 915
Cranſton 148. 864
Craw 575
Crawford 719
Cridland 292
Cumming 719
Cunningham 651
Currie 72. 652
Dalgleith 363
Dalley 148
Dalrymple 363
Dalyell 719
Davidſon 72. 213. 575
Dempſter 148
Dickſon 507
Doedes 719
Donald 363
Douglas 292. 507. 575
Dowdeſwell 719
Drummond 292 915
Duff 575
Dunbar 790
Dyce 148. 790
Edington 213
Elder 719
Elliot 719
Engliſh 719
Erſkine 791
Faichney 864
Falconar 507
Farquhar 791
Ferguſſon 72
Fiſſe 575
Forbes 213. 575. 652. 719.
Fraſer 148
Fullerton 864
Fulton 652
Fyers 652. 915
Gaſcoigne 72
Geddes 292
Gerrard 652
Gibſon 719
Glaſs 363
Gordon 148. 363. 719. 790.
Graham 148. 213
Grant 148
Gray 719
Green 507. 790
Greig 507. 790
Guthrie 72. 507
Haig 575
Halkerſton 575
Hall 575
Hamilton 291
Hannay 291
Harriſon 213
Hardie 719
Hawke 651
Hay 507
Henderſon 575
Henry 213
Hervey 168. 651
Hill 363
Hogg 915
Home 791. 864
Hope 575
Howie 363
Hume 719. 791
Hunter 719
Hutton 363
Inglis 575
Irving 291
Johnſtone 292. 363. 507. 575. 864.
Keay 148
Kelloch 651
Kerr 652
Kirk 719
Lawſon 363. 790
Leith 213
Levi 864
Lindſay 213. 651
Logan 575
M'Alaſter 213
M'Brair 575
M'Caa 507
M'Culloch 148
M'Donald 291
M'Taggart 72
M'Farlane 864
M'Farquhar 652
M'Grigor 507
M'Kerrel 652
M'Kenzie 719. 864. 915
M'Lean 72
M'Niel 291
M'Pherſon 507
Mack 719
Mackie 863
Madden 719
Mann 507
Manſon 575
Maxwell 72. 652
Mein 652
Millar 507
Milne 507. 575. 719. 864
Moir 363
Monro 72. 651
Montague 791
Mudie 864
Murray 652. 864. 915
Neven 864
Newnham 652
North 148. 213
Ogilvie 716. 864
Oliphant 791
Oliver 652
Ormiſton 864
Paiſley 148. 719
Paterſon 790
Philips 292
Pirner 213
Pollock 72. 213
Ponſonby 148
Porter 148
Ralſton 72
Ramſay 292
Ranken 292
Rattray 72. 575
Reid 575
Reoch 575
Robertſon 575
Rooke 791
Ronaldſon 790
Roſe 363. 507. 652
Roſs 292. 864
Ruſſel 652. 791
Rutherford 651
Rutter 863
Salmond 507
Scott 507. 652
Semple 575
Shand 363. 791
Shaw 575
Sheffield 148
Simpſon 72. 719
Smith 213. 507. 864
Spalding 864
Spence 363
Strange 915
Stedman 651
Stewart 790. 791. 863
Stirling 719
Studdart 72
Tarleton 915
Thomſon 507. 791. 864
Trail 148
Trotter 864
Turnbull 651
Upton 148
Ure 719
Vernon 148
Walker 292. 652
Watſon 652. 864
Waugh 652
Webſter 292
Weſt 148
Wight 864
Wightman 719
Williamſon 575
Wilſon 575. 652. 791
Wolfeley 575
Wylie 507
Youge 213

BIRTHS.

Alexander 148
Arthur 363
Baillie 719
Blair 363
Brazil 791
Broome 719
Brown 864
Campbell 292. 575. 652
Carliſle 791
Chetwind 652
Clavering 719
Clephan 791
Cruikſhank 507
Dalgleith 507
Dalkeith 72
Deans 72
Dewar 507
Douglaſs 652
Dunbar 72
Dundas 213. 719
Duff 292
Dungaſon 791
Dyce 507
Elliot 214
Errol 864
Erſkine 652
Ferrier 214
Fielding 575
Forbes 507
French 791
Gibſon 148
Grant 652
Gray 363. 652
Greville 148
Guildford 791
Haig 719
Hamilton 575
Hope 292. 575
Hunter 864
Inverury 719
Kennedy 719
Kinloch 575
Lawrenſon 575
Leith 864

Lenox 625
Macleod 148. 214. 575
Maitland 148. 864
Marjoribanks 148. 791
Menteith 864
Menzies 507
M'Kenzie 791
M'Lean 292. 791. 864
M'Leod 214
Mole 791
Morehead 719
Newton 507
Nisbet 507
Ogilvy 148
Oliphant 363
Oliver 719
Ramsay 507. 652. 791
Robertson 292
Ross 719. 864
Russel 719
Russia 213
Scott 148. 507. 652
Sitwell 652
Skinner 791
Souter 72
Spencer 292
Stewart 292. 791
Stirling 363
Taylor 652
Thomson 507
Titchfield 292
Tulloch 292
Tytler 507
Urquhart 292
Veitch 575
Walker 72
Wemyss 864
Wirtemberg 363

DEATHS.

Abercrombie 576
Muir 576
Affleck 792
Airley 915
Alice 508
Allan 719
Amboise 214
Anderson 508
Angus 214
Bagot 791
Baird 720
Balderston 791
Balfour 791
Barklay 576
Beaucleis 507
Beckford 576
Bell 364
Bennet 72. 864
Binning 292
Biffet 507
Blacker 363
Black 576
Blair 507. 576. 915
Blane 214
Boyd 652
Boyle 292
Bowhill 720
Brown 864
Buchanan 292
Buchan 363
Bucke 792
Burnside 652
Burn 576
Byard 791
Byron 507
Callander 720
Calthrope 214
Campbell 72. 292. 363. 364. 508. 575. 652. 719. 720
Carnegie 508. 792
Carr 720
Carruthers 292
Cassilis 292
Chambers 214. 575. 720
Chetterfield 791
Chrittie 719
Clairfait 575
Clanbrassil 214
Clark 364. 508
Clarkson 720
Clonmell 507
Cockburn 214
Cockerell 576
Colt 719
Cork 720
Crosbie 508 915
Cunninghame 507
Cupples 652
Cushnie 575
Dalling 214
Dalrymple 720
De Dresnay 214
De Kutzleben 719
Dickson 508 576
Dobson 576
Douglass 576
Doune 576
Drew 363
Drummond 719
Duncan 791 915
Dundass 364
Dunn 791. 792
Dunsmure 576
Eden 864
Elder 508
Elliott 364
Elphinston 364
Enslie 720
Errol 508
Erskine 915
Evans 719
Eyre 652
Fergusson 214
Ferrier 791
Finlay 791
Fookes 719
Fordyce 214
Forster 915
Fraser 507
Freebairn 364
Fullerton 719
Gainsborough 364
Gibbs 507
Gilbert 72. 791. 915
Givan 364
Gordon 214. 363. 576
Gourlay 507
Graham 214
Grant 72. 720
Hallhead 652
Hamilton 214. 364. 719
Hardie 792
Hart 576. 792
Hastie 575
Hay 214. 507. 720. 915
Headley 364
Henderson 720. 791
Henry 214
Hepburn 72
Hill 792
Hodgson 791
Hogg 720
Holwell 791
Honeyman 214
Innes 72
Irving 214. 364
Jaffray 507
Johnstone 364 508
Kemp 576
Keith 72. 214
King 915
Kinnear 364
Kirkland 214
Lawson 652
Learmonth 364
Lesslie 364. 720
Leven 364
Liddesdale 576
Loch 792
Lockhart 148
Logan 364
Luke 72
Mair 364
Malcolm 576
Martin 576. 720
Maxton 508
Maxwell 364. 719
M'Adem 292
M'Clarty 792
M'Donald 364
M'Gilligan 214
M'Ilhose 720
M'Innes 720
M'Kenzie 148. 719
M'Lean 214. 292
M'Leod 148. 576
M'Nair 364
Meek 915
Melvin 652
Milligan 214
Millar 214
Miln 791
Moncrieff 214
Montgomery 915
Morrison 508
Mountjoy 507
Mowat 507
Muller 214
Munro 292. 719. 792
Murray 792
Napier 292
Nesbitt 652
Nicol 72. 507
Noel 364
Ogivie 508
Oliphant 791
O'Neil 508
Palmer 214
Paterson 719
Phipps 364
Phorson 363
Pollock 364
Portarlington 864
Ponchin 719
Price 148
Ramsay 292. 791
Ranch 720
Reid 363. 576
Rennie 720
Richardson 576
Rider 576
Ritchie 292
Robertson 364. 792. 915
Roper 720
Rorrison 792
Ross 148. 507. 792
Rothe 292
Russel 72. 364
Rutherford 719
Salisbury 791
Saunderson 508
Sawyer 507
Scobie 364
Scott 507. 791
Seton 791
Shiels 720
Shuldham 791
Sibbald 720
Sinclair 72. 915
Small 214
Snow 214
Spotiswood 364
Spink 719
Staniforth 214
Stark 915
Stewart 292. 576. 652
Stirling 214. 292. 791
Strachan 915
Stuart 214. 363. 719. 720
Swan 719
Taylor 148
Thomson 720. 915
Thom 292
Tod 363. 507
Truscott 214
Ure 364
Urquhart 720
Walker 576. 864
Warrand 791
Watson 72. 652. 719

Watt 576. 719
Waugh 72
Webſter 364
Wemyſs 214. 719
White 363. 720
Williamſon 791
Williſon 364
Wilſon 363. 652 864
Wirtemberg 292
Wylie 576
Wright 364. 576. 864

PREFERMENTS.

Abercromby 215. 508. 720
Adamſon 508
Anderſon 508
Auckland 215
Baird 792
Bentley 508. 652
Berry 864
Bontein 576
Bruce 215
Burnet 508
Burns 720
Callander 508
Calder 576
Caſtlereach 864
Cathcart 720
Champion 720
Cheſterfield 215
Colquhoun 864
Commons *new members* 792
Cornwallis 508
Craigie 720
Dallas 508
Dillon 292
Dundas 215
Elder 864
Ferguſſon 652
Fettes 720
Fletcher 508
Forbes 508
French 215
Garnock 720
Glyn 720
Grant 508
Gregory 864
Grieve 792
Grenville 864
Hall 864
Harrington 792
Hay 292
Hutton 720
Inglis 792
Innes 864
Kenmure 215
Leiceſter 215
Lock 792
M'Dowall 215
Meadows 720
Millar 215
Montroſe 864
Nelſon 720
Nichol 792
Ormond 292
Oſwald 792
Poole 576
Provoſts for 1798. 720
Ritchie 652
Roſs 215
Somerville 292
Stirling 792
Tod 215
Trail 508
Weſtmoreland 215
Williams 508
York 292

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Aitchiſon 576
Alexander 148
Anderſon 292
Arbuckle 915
Barbours 792
Bowie 720
Bryden 148
Campbell 915
Clarkſon 508
Cleland 792
Cowan 792
Currie 720
Doig 915
Donalds 508
Duncan 576
Eadie 915
Fairfoul 508
Fairweather 216. 508
Fenton 720
Fiſher 576
Forreſt 792
Gall 756
Gray 216
Greive 508
Hardy 148
Hay 720
Laird 148
Lauder 148
Learmouth 292
Leſlie 576
Low 508
M'Conochie 216
M'Culloch 508
Macduff 148
M'Farlane 508
M'Grigor 508
M'Kay 508
Martin 148
Meliſs & Co. 292
Milne 216. 576
Mitchell 792
Moriſon 216. 720
Nicholſon 576
Orme 762
Palmer 292
Plumber 792
Ralſton 292
Rickerby 915
Robertſon 792
Scott 292
Simpſon 216
Sinclair 216
Stewart 508
Stuart 915
Taylors 792
Weir 292
Wilſon 792
Woodrow 72

END OF VOLUME LX. OR VOL. V. OF N. S.

ERRATA.

In the Ode to the Sky Lark, page 846. verſe 2d, line 1ſt, for "their" *read* "thou" Signature D. I.

In Liſt of Edinburgh Magiſtrates, for Barclay Fife, Eſq; *read* James Eyre, Eſq.

Vol. 60.

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lloch 508
uff 148
lane 508
igor 508
y 508
n 148
s & Co.

216. 576
ell 792
on 216.

olfon 576
762
er 292
ber 792
on 292
erby 915
rtfon 792
292.
fon 216
air 216
ait 508
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ors 792
292
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THE SCOTS MAGAZINE;

OR

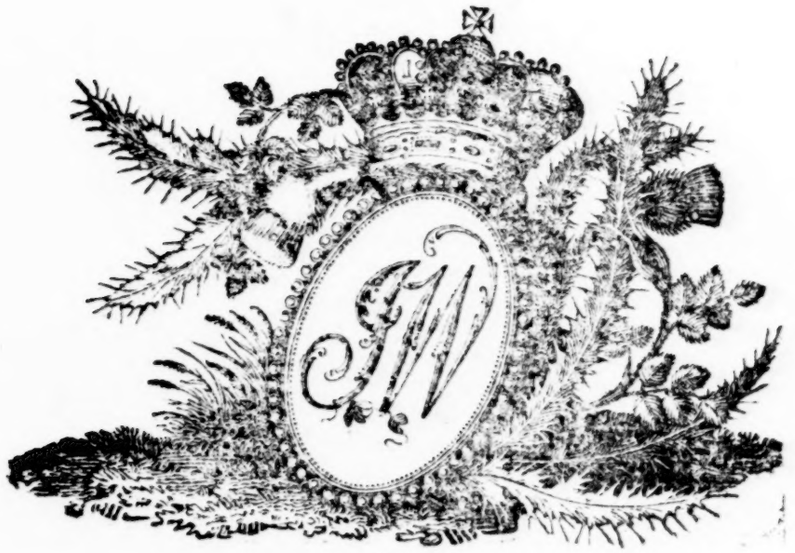
GENERAL REPOSITORY

OF

LITERATURE, HISTORY, AND POLITICS,

FOR THE YEAR M,DCC,XCIX.

Ne quid falsi dicere audeat, ne quid veri non audeat.



VOL. LXI.

OR VOLUME SIXTH OF A NEW SERIES.

EDINBURGH:

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FOR JAMES WATSON, NO 40. SOUTH BRIDGE.

1799.

January.

1. An account received of the defeat of the Neapolitan army, near Civito Caſtellana, by General Macdonald.---2. Outrages committed in the county of Wexford.---8. War declared againſt France by the Day of Algiers. Accounts from different parts of the country were received of ſeveral perſons having periſhed from the ſevere inclemency of the weather, and in many places the ſnow lay ſo deep that the roads were impaſſable.---11. His Majeſty's ſhip Apollo, of 38 guns, loſt on the coaſt of Holland. An official account received of the capture of the Ambuſcade frigate.---14. Three officers of the Eaſt India Company, viz. Capt. Conway, Mr Cherry, and Mr Graham, treacherouſly aſſaſſinated by order of the Vizier Ally, late Nabob of Oude, at Benares, in the Eaſt Indies, while partaking of an elegant entertainment to which they had been invited by him.---15. Sir John Parnell, Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland, diſmiſſed from his office.---22. A meſſage was delivered to both Houſes of Parliament from his Majeſty, recommending to their conſideration the meaſure of an Union with Ireland.---23. The motion for an addreſs to his Majeſty on the ſubject of an Union, was carried in the Houſe of Peers of Ireland by a majority of 36. In the Houſe of Commons, the queſtion was agitated on that part of the addreſs which related to "conſolidating into one fabric the ſtrength of both countries," which, after a very long and tumultuous diſcuſſion, was rejected, the numbers being, for retaining the paragraph 104, and for rejecting it 109.---26. Accounts received from Lord Nelſon, ſtating, that the King and Queen of Naples had left their capital, and were embarked on board the Vanguard.---28. This day, in conſequence of the exceſſes which had been ſuffered in the courſe of the diſcuſſion of the queſtion reſpecting the Union in the Iriſh Houſe of Commons, Sir H. Cavendiſh moved, "That any ſlight or marked diſreſpect of hooting, hiſſing, or impeding the way of any Member of that Houſe outſide doors, ſhould be conſidered as a groſs violation of its privileges." Which motion was of courſe agreed to.---31. The Duke of Leeds died, a Nobleman whoſe amiable manners had attracted univerſal reſpect.

February.

1. The Proſerpine frigate, which carried the Right Hon. Thomas Grenville and his ſuite to the Elbe, on an important miſſion to the Court of Berlin, loſt in the ice near Cuxhaven; 17 of the crew were drowned. An account received of the death, in Italy, of Prince Frederick of Orange. His Serene Highneſs was General in Chief of the Auſtrian army in Italy.---7. Two large Spaniſh frigates captured off Port Mahon, by the Argo and a ſloop of war.---8. An account received by the way of France of the ſurrender of General Maek, commanding the Neapolitan army, to the French forces near Naples.---9. This day exceeded any in memory of the oldeſt inhabitant in Edinburgh, by the quantity of ſnow which fell, and the violence of the wind; many ſhops were ſhut up, and in many parts the ſtreets were impaſſable.---15. Advices received by the way of Holland of the ſurrender to the French of the important fortreſs of Ehrenbreitſtein.---18. The country was ſo flooded, in conſequence of the rains and melting of the ſnow, that the Royal Family were prevented going from town to Windſor.---19. The voluntary contributions for the continuance of the war this day amounted to 2,492,053l.

March.

1. General Jourdan with his army paſſed the Rhine.---3. The iſland of Corfu taken from the French by the Turks and Ruſſians. The Leander of 50 guns, and the Brune frigate, were found in the harbour. Fourteen Hamburgh mails became due, the greateſt number that ever was known to be ſo.---17. The whole of Buonaparte's heavy artillery, deſtined for the ſiege of St Jean d'Acre, in Egypt, taken by Sir Sidney Smith.---19. The O'Conners, and ſeveral other Iriſh traitors, ſent from Dublin to Fort George, in Scotland, where they are to be cloſely confined during the war. Advices received from Paris of a declaration of war

by the French Directory againſt the Emperor, as King of Hungary and Bohemia, and againſt the Grand Duke of Tuſcany.---21. The French army, under General Jourdan, defeated by the Auſtrians under the Archduke Charles, near Stockach, with great loſs.---25. The French again defeated by the Auſtrians near Stockach, who, after a long and deſperate battle, gained a moſt complete victory. The French had 4000 killed, and 6000 wounded and priſoners.---26. The French defeated in the Tyrol, and likewiſe near Verona.---27. The French defeated before Porto Legnano. In this action they loſt 3000 in killed and wounded, 1000 made priſoners, and 13 pieces of cannon taken.---30. The French ſuſtained a complete defeat near Verona by the Auſtrians under the command of General Kray.

April.

4. The French army under General Jourdan, repaſſed the Rhine in great confuſion.---5. The French again defeated at Magnan, between Verona and Mantua, with the loſs of 2000 priſoners, 11 pieces of cannon, and an enormous number killed and wounded.---10. The French entirely driven from the Tyrol and the Engadine.---12. Accounts received from India of a force in the territory of the Nizam, conſiſting of 11,000 men, officered by Frenchmen, being ſurrounded by Col. Roberts and obliged to lay down their arms.---18. Suwarrow took upon him the command of the allied Auſtrian and Ruſſian army in Italy.---24. The French defeated near Caſſano.---25. Lord Thanet and Mr Ferguſſon found guilty in the Court of King's Bench of a riot at the Court Houſe at Maidſtone, after Arthur O'Connor had been tried for High treaſon.---26. The French fleet, conſiſting of 25 ſail, put to ſea from Toulon, but was ſoon after loſt ſight of in a ſtorm.---27. The combined Auſtrian and Ruſſian forces, under Field-Marſhal Suwarrow, attacked the French army near Milan, and after a well ſuſtained battle on both ſides, the French were totally defeated with the loſs of 5000 killed, 10,000 taken priſoners, 90 pieces of cannon, and 40 baggage waggons. Milan taken in conſequence.---28. Bonnier and Robertot, two of the French Miniſters at Raſtadt, the Congreſs held there having been broken up, aſſaſſinated by an armed banditti of Frenchmen, diſguiſed as Auſtrian huſſars, on the evening of their departure from that city: Their colleague, Jean Debry, eſcaped, though ſeverely wounded. The important [illegible] treſs of Peſchiera ſurrendered to a [illegible] of Auſtrians.---29. Accounts re[illegible] of formidable inſurrections again[illegible] French in Naples, and the St[illegible] the Church.

4. Seri[illegible] poo Saib' [illegible] by the B[illegible] mand o[illegible] Tippoo [illegible] many of [illegible] ſures we[illegible] French [illegible] offered [illegible] Lord K[illegible] in the [illegible] Medite[illegible] from th[illegible] cannon.---12. The Auſtrian[illegible] Bologna, and took 1200 priſoners.---14. The Spaniſh fleet ſailed from Cadiz, and followed the French.---18. The Spaniſh fleet which had ſailed from Cadiz reached Carthagena.---19. Ancona ſurrendered to the Ruſſian and Engliſh forces.---20. The town and fortreſs of Breſcia taken from the French. Accounts received from Paris of the defeat of the French army in Italy between Lodi and Pavia.---21. Buonaparte's army totally defeated at St Jean d'Acre by Sir Sidney Smith, after many deſperate attacks on the place. The French loſt 6000 killed, including 80 officers. They likewiſe loſt all their baggage.---23. The citadel of Milan taken from the French.---24. Moreau obliged to abandon his excellent and formidable poſition at Alexandria, and to retreat to Coni. The Caſtle of Milan ſurrendered to the allied army, with the towns of Ferrara, Caſale, and Ceva.---27. The French driven from their poſition near Winterthur by General Hotze.

June.

4. The Archduke Charles croſſed the Glatt, and drove the French under Maſſena as far as their entrenched camp before Zurich. The enemy's loſs in this battle

xceeded 4000 men.---This being
ajesty's birth-day, the whole of
oyal Associations and Volunteer
in and about the metropolis, af-
ed in Hyde Park, and were ho-
with his Majesty's inspection.---
ght the French abandoned
ched camp before Zurich ---
British seamen and marines,
to the Success frigate, under
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This day his
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cipline of the
h inst. in Hyde Park, again honoured them with his royal inspection at their different alarm posts, and was graciously pleased to express his approbation in the most flattering terms.

July.

5. The slave trade limitation bill thrown out of the House of Lords by a majority of seven.---8. An account received by Government of the defeat of the French General Macdonald, by Field Marshal Suwarrow, at St Gioani, near Bobbio.---10. The French and Spanish combined fleets reach Cadiz harbour. The King of Naples returned to take possession of his capital.---12. Parliament prorogued. On this day the royal assent was given to the bill enabling militiamen to enter into the regiments of the line.---13. Admiral Sir Alan Gardner arrived at Plymouth with three sail of the line from the Mediterranean, and the five sail of the line of French prizes taken by Rear Admiral Lord Nelson in the glorious and ever memorable battle of the Nile.---21. The combined French and Spanish fleets sailed from Cadiz ---22. The important fortress of Alexandria surrendered to the allies by capitulation.---26. The Emperor of Russia declared war against France.---28. Capua and Gaeta surrendered to the allied British, Neapolitan, and Ottoman forces.---30. Mantua taken by the Imperialists.

August.

2. An account received, by the way of Paris, of the re-capture of Naples from the French, and of their expulsion from Tuscany. These accounts state the junction of Macdonald with Moreau.---5. Earl Howe died.---6. The troops to be employed on a secret expedition began to embark at Margate and Ramsgate.---13. The first division of the secret expedition sailed from the Downs, under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby and Vice-Admiral Mitchell.---15. The battle of Novi fought, and the French defeated with great loss. Novi taken. The French General Joubert killed. Four thousand French taken prisoners, with 30 pieces of cannon, &c.---16. An account received of the combined French and Spanish fleets having reached Brest.---17. Lord Keith, with the fleet under his command, anchored in Torbay.---20. The Dutch settlement of Surinam surrendered to his Majesty's forces.---26. A 2d detachment of troops sailed from the Downs for Holland.---27. On this day the British forces, under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, after having encountered great delays from the severity of the weather, made good their landing in the face of a formidable enemy.---28. The British troops took possession of the important post of the Helder Point, which the enemy had evacuated in the course of the night.---30. The whole of the Dutch fleet in the Texel surrendered to the British force under Vice Admiral Mitchell. Rome and Civita Vecchia taken possession of by the allies, under the command of Commodore Troubridge.

September.

7. His Royal Highness Field-Marshal the Duke of York appointed Captain-General of all the British forces within the kingdom, and of all which are, or may be employed on the continent of Europe.---10. A proclamation issued for the meeting of Parliament on the 24th instant. This day the enemy made an attack upon Sir Ralph

by the French Directory againſt the Emperor, as King of Hungary and Bohemia, and againſt the Grand Duke of Tuſcany.---21. The French army, under General Jourdan, defeated by the Auſtrians under the Archduke Charles, near Stockach, with great loſs.---25. The French again defeated by the Auſtrians near Stockach, who, after a long and deſperate battle, gained a moſt complete victory. The French had 4000 killed, and 6000 wounded and priſoners.---26. The French defeated in the Tyrol, and likewiſe near Verona.---27. The French defeated before Porto Legnano. In this action they loſt 3000 in killed and wounded, 1000 made priſoners, and 13 pieces of cannon taken.---30. The French ſuſtained a complete defeat near Verona by the Auſtrians under the command of General Kray.

April.

4. The French army under General Jourdan, repaſſed the Rhine in great confuſion.---5. The French again defeated at Magnan, between Verona and Mantua, with the loſs of 2000 priſoners, 11 pieces of cannon, and an enormous number killed and wounded.---10. The French entirely driven from the Tyrol and the Engadine.---12. Accounts received from India of a force in the territory of the Nizam, conſiſting of 11,000 men, officered by Frenchmen, being ſurrounded by Col. Roberts and obliged to lay down their arms.---18. Suwarrow took upon him the command of the allied Auſtrian and Ruſſian army in Italy.---24. The French defeated near Caſſino.---25. Lord Thanet and Mr Ferguſſon found guilty in the Court of King's Bench of a riot at the Court Houſe at Maidſtone, after Arthur O'Connor had been tried for high treaſon.---26. The French fleet, conſiſting of 25 ſail, put to ſea from Toulon, but was ſoon after loſt ſight of in a ſtorm.---27. The combined Auſtrian and Ruſſian forces, under Field-Marſhal Suwarrow, attacked the French army near Milan, and after a well ſuſtained battle on both ſides, the French were totally defeated with the loſs of 5000 killed, 10,000 taken priſoners, 90 pieces of cannon, and 40 baggage waggons. Milan taken in conſequence.---28. Bonnier and Robert, two of the French Miniſters at Raſtadt, the Congreſs held there having been broken up, aſſaſſinated by an armed banditti of Frenchmen, diſguiſed as Auſtrian huſſars, on the evening of their departure from that city: Their colleague, Jean Debry, eſcaped, though very ſeverely wounded. The important fortreſs of Peſchiera ſurrendered to a corps of Auſtrians.---29. Accounts received of formidable inſurrections againſt the French in Naples, and the States of the Church.

May.

4. Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo Saib's dominions, taken by aſſault by the Britiſh forces under the command of Lieutenant-General Harris. Tippoo Saib himſelf was killed, with many of his Courtiers. Immenſe treaſures were found in his capital.---5. The French fleet off Cadiz ſince the 2d. offered battle by the Britiſh under Lord Keith, which they declined, and in the night of the 5th run for the Mediterranean.----6. Peſchiera taken from the French, with 90 pieces of cannon.---12. The Auſtrians entered Bologna, and took 1200 priſoners.---14. The Spaniſh fleet ſailed from Cadiz, and followed the French.---18. The Spaniſh fleet which had ſailed from Cadiz reached Carthagena.---19. Ancona ſurrendered to the Ruſſian and Engliſh forces.---20. The town and fortreſs of Breſcia taken from the French. Accounts received from Paris of the defeat of the French army in Italy between Lodi and Pavia.---21. Buonaparte's army totally defeated at St Jean d'Acre by Sir Sidney Smith, after many deſperate attacks on the place. The French loſt 6000 killed, including 80 officers. They likewiſe loſt all their baggage.---23. The citadel of Milan taken from the French.---24. Moreau obliged to abandon his excellent and formidable poſition at Alexandria, and to retreat to Coni. The Caſtle of Milan ſurrendered to the allied army, with the towns of Ferrara, Caſale, and Ceva.---27. The French driven from their poſition near Winterthur by General Hotze.

June.

4. The Archduke Charles croſſed the Glatt, and drove the French under Maſſena as far as their entrenched camp before Zurich. The enemy's loſs in this battle

battle exceeded 4000 men.---This being his Majeſty's birth-day, the whole of the Loyal Aſſociations and Volunteer Corps in and about the metropolis, aſſembled in Hyde Park, and were honoured with his Majeſty's inſpection.---5. In the night the French abandoned their entrenched camp before Zurich---9. Forty-two Britiſh ſeamen and marines, belonging to the Succeſs frigate, under the command of Lieutenants Facey and Stupart, and Lieutenant Davidſon of the marines, went into the harbour of La Selva in open day, and brought out a valuable Spaniſh veſſel, mounting 10 guns, carrying 113 men, in the face of a heavy fire of muſquetry from the ſhore.----10. The Princeſs Royal of France married to the Duke D'Angouleme.---19. The French army under General Macdonald, in Italy, totally defeated, with the loſs of 5000 killed, 10,000 taken priſoners, including four Generals, and great quantities of military ſtores.---The citadel of Turin taken from the French.---21. This day his Majeſty, induced by the very military appearance and good diſcipline of the volunteer corps on the 4th inſt. in Hyde Park, again honoured them with his royal inſpection at their different alarm poſts, and was graciouſly pleaſed to expreſs his approbation in the moſt flattering terms.

July.

5. The ſlave trade limitation bill thrown out of the Houſe of Lords by a majority of ſeven.---8. An account received by Government of the defeat of the French General Macdonald, by Field Marſhal Suwarrow, at St Gioani, near Bobbio.---10. The French and Spaniſh combined fleets reach Cadiz harbour. The King of Naples returned to take poſſeſſion of his capital.---12. Parliament prorogued. On this day the royal aſſent was given to the bill enabling militiamen to enter into the regiments of the line.---13. Admiral Sir Alan Gardner arrived at Plymouth with three ſail of the line from the Mediterranean, and the five ſail of the line of French prizes taken by Rear Admiral Lord Nelſon in the glorious and ever memorable battle of the Nile.---21. The combined French and Spaniſh fleets ſailed from Cadiz---22. The important fortreſs of Aleſſandria ſurrendered to the allies by capitulation.---26. The Emperor of Ruſſia declared war againſt France.---28. Capua and Gaeta ſurrendered to the allied Britiſh, Neapolitan, and Ottoman forces.---30. Mantua taken by the Imperialiſts.

Auguſt.

2. An account received, by the way of Paris, of the re-capture of Naples from the French, and of their expulſion from Tuſcany. Theſe accounts ſtate the junction of Macdonald with Moreau.---5. Earl Howe died.---6. The troops to be employed on a ſecret expedition began to embark at Margate and Ramſgate.---13. The firſt diviſion of the ſecret expedition ſailed from the Downs, under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby and Vice-Admiral Mitchell.---15. The battle of Novi fought, and the French defeated with great loſs. Novi taken. The French General Joubert killed. Four thouſand French taken priſoners, with 30 pieces of cannon, &c.---16. An account received of the combined French and Spaniſh fleets having reached Breſt.---17. Lord Keith, with the fleet under his command, anchored in Torbay.---20. The Dutch ſettlement of Surinam ſurrendered to his Majeſty's forces.---26. A 2d detachment of troops ſailed from the Downs for Holland.---27. On this day the Britiſh forces, under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, after having encountered great delays from the ſeverity of the weather, made good their landing in the face of a formidable enemy.---28. The Britiſh troops took poſſeſſion of the important poſt of the Helder Point, which the enemy had evacuated in the courſe of the night.---30. The whole of the Dutch fleet in the Texel ſurrendered to the Britiſh force under Vice Admiral Mitchell. Rome and Civita Vecchia taken poſſeſſion of by the allies, under the command of Commodore Troubridge.

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7. His Royal Highneſs Field-Marſhal the Duke of York appointed Captain-General of all the Britiſh forces within the kingdom, and of all which are, or may be employed on the continent of Europe.---10. A proclamation iſſued for the meeting of Parliament on the 24th inſtant. This day the enemy made an attack upon Sir Ralph